THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

SELF CONCEPT AND SELF IDENTITY IN ADULT LIFE STAGES - AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

© MAXINE MARILYNN CROOKS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled SELF CONCEPT AND SELF IDENTITY IN ADULT LIFE STAGES - AN EXPLORATORY STUDY submitted by MAXINE MARILYNN CROOKS in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Date September 30, 1980.

To my mother, Margaret Walker, who showed me that learning is living and education is a life-long process.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated age-related differences in personality characteristics of self-concept, self-identity and self-esteem, over the adult life-span. The reflection of identity resolution through the achievement of a purpose in life was also examined. Since self-esteem has been shown to have a significant relationship to speech anxiety, a second level of investigation was executed. This is the measurement of self-esteem through a measure of oral communication anxiety.

101 subjects from the City of Edmonton were randomly selected and ranged in age from 15 to 54 years. The subjects were surveyed using three questionnaires: The Tennessee Self Concept Scale, The Purpose in Life Test and The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension.

Contrary to prediction, analysis of variance applied to the data revealed significant differences on level of self-esteem and self-identity among the eight age groups of the study. There was a tendency for these self-perceptions to increase over age. Significant differences were also found among age groups on six of the other self-concept scales. When the eight age groups were combined into four sub-groups, differences were found between the youngest and oldest group on six personality measures including self-esteem and self-identity. Purpose in Life scores and speech anxiety scores showed no significant differences among age groups as determined by analysis of variance.

Correlation analysis indicated the higher the level of self-esteem, the greater the degree to which purpose and meaning in life was found. Oral communication anxiety and self-esteem were found to be independent in this study.

In summary, the general trend was toward positive self-perceptions and increased levels of self-esteem and self-identity over age. Implications for counselors and for further life-cycle research derived from the data obtained in this study are outlined.

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This study reflects the dialogue which took place between the subjects and the researcher. I extend my sincere appreciation to those adults who showed their interest in this study by freely giving of their time.

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The complex psychic life of the child is, of course, a problem of the first magnitude to parents, educators, and doctors, but when normal the child has no real problems of its own. It is only the adult human being who can have doubts about himself and be at variance with himself.

Jung (1933)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

Whereas a number of research studies have investigated personality characteristics of youth and the aged, few studies have concentrated on young and middle-aged adult-age groups. A thorough search of the relevant literature on adult development revealed conflicting research results concerning personality change and continuity as a function of aging. This study was therefore devised to describe age-related differences in personality characteristics. The design of this study consisted of a survey of eight adult-age groups drawn randomly from the general population. The age groups ranged from young adulthood (age 15 to 19 years) to late middle-age (age 50 to 54 years). Three self-reported psychological measures were used in the investigation.

The purposes of this study were (1) to describe certain psychological and personal characteristics of adults, (2) to examine the differences between adult-age groups on these dimensions, (3) to discuss the implications of these characteristics for professionals working with adults and planning adult-oriented programs. Characteristics described and analyzed include self-concept, identity, and self-esteem. The fulfilment of goals or a purpose in life across

adult-age groups was also examined.

Age Structure of the Population

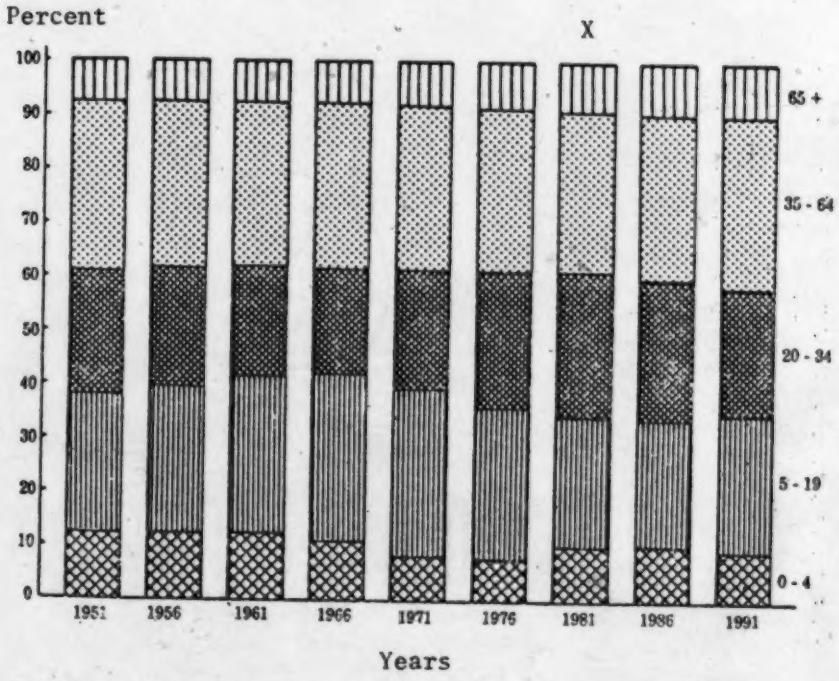
The increased concern and growing interest in adult developmental issues and life-course perspectives parallels the increasing number of adults, both absolute and relative, in our population. Industrialized societies are aging societies and Canada is no exception. In the past, individuals looked forward to a life-span extending "three score and ten years." The average life expectancy figures for 1971 show an increase to an average of 72.9 years ($\bar{X}$ = 69.3 years for men; $\bar{X}$ = 76.4 years for women). The "baby boom" following World War II and the subsequent decrease in the birth rate have led to significant demographic changes. The proportion of middle-aged and older persons relative to children and adolescents has greatly increased (1976 Census of Canada). Current population statistics show 33.2% of the Canadian population is over 35 years of age (Figure 1). Projected figures indicate this demographic ratio will increase over the next decade and by the year 2001 it is expected that 11.8% of the population will be 65 years or over, a 3.1% increase (Canada Year Book, 1978). Similar proportional increases are also apparent for all stages of adulthood. United States Census figures and projections parallel Canadian trends (Coleman, 1975; Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1978).

Generally, people are living longer and the degree of choice as to individual patterns of aging is becoming wider because of

FIGURE 1

Historical and Projected Age Distribution of the Population of Canada

1951 to 1991



Source: Statistics Canada, Cat. No. 91-514, 1974, pp. 101-51
Unpublished projections prepared by Frank Denton of
Canadian Economic Services.

improvements in health care, technology, retirement legislation, flexibility in work schedules and increased leisure time (Fozard & Popkin, 1978; Havighurst, 1973; Heddesheimer, 1976; Miernyk, 1975). Presently there is greater emphasis being placed on the quality rather than quantity of life, with an increasing focus on life satisfaction, meaningfulness, self-fulfilment and creativity (Bühler & Allen, 1972). Currently, there also appears to be greater flexibility in adult-roles and life-styles across all age groups, allowing and necessitating a wide range of behavior (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Continuous life-cycle and social changes create the need for adults to make changes in their lives during the post-adolescent years. The increasing numbers of adults making mid-life occupational changes and reentering educational institutions are examples of the impact of technology on the individual and the wide range of life-styles currently available and plausible.

Historical Perspective

The field of adult development has been largely neglected by psychological investigators until recently in contrast to the emphasis placed on personality changes in adulthood by writers such as Dostoyevsky, Proust, Tolstoi and Shakespeare. Adult psychology and life-span development is one of the most recent fields of social-science research (Bischof, 1976; Riegel, 1976). Until recently the emphasis in developmental psychology had been placed on childhood and adolescence with theory development and research focused on

these areas. Carl Jung, Erik Erikson, and Charlotte Bühler were important exceptions to this traditional focus and, after the 1930's, their work emphasized the psychology of adulthood, particularly personality development (Bischof, 1976).

After World War II researchers leaped from the emphasis on adolescence to an emphasis on senescence and there was a growing interest in the study of the aged along with increased research interest in gerontology and geriatrics (Elias, Elias & Elias, 1977). The recognition that adulthood is not a period of sameness and constancy and merely a time between "growing up" and "growing old" is a relatively recent view (Whitbourne & Weinstock, 1979). Social-science researchers over the last decade have shown an increased awareness and interest in a life-course perspective that focuses on the nature and processes of the adult years. There is a rapidly expanding literature and an increased interest in life-cycles, life-stages, life-span development (Goulet & Baltes, 1970; Neugarten, 1968; Schaie, 1965), life-lines (Borque & Black, 1977) and mid-life transitions and crises (Brim, 1976; Gould, 1972; Levinson, 1977). The recent research indicates that adults, like other cohorts, experience the conflicts, hopes, disappointments, and urges that other age cohorts experience, relative to their current life-stage.

Significance of Study

Since adult developmental research is new and emerging, the counseling profession is faced with special challenges due to the

increasing recognition of adult needs (Ertine, 1977; Schlossberg, 1977). Many adults in the 20 to 60 year age group have been socialized to expect sameness and continuity after adolescence (Schlossberg, 1976; Schlossberg, Troll & Leibowitz, 1978) and are unprepared for the resulting feelings of anxiety, self-doubt, uncertainty and conflict and believe they are not fully mature individuals. Recent research data show that adults experience conflicts, crises, and disappointments at all adult life-stages (Riegel, 1975). Adults report degrees of stress, anxiety, meaninglessness and alienation during periods of transition, turning points, and adjustments they face at different stages in their life-cycles (Kimmel, 1976). Personal needs and social roles change; therefore individuals cannot be thoroughly prepared in childhood for accompanying changes in values, attitudes and identifications (Brim, 1966; Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Researchers are now proposing that adulthood is an integrative, dynamic, and continuous process which is an important normative development throughout the adult years with the potential for change present at all ages (Ertine, 1977; Schlossberg, 1977). The discovery of growth, characteristic throughout the adult years, requires that counselors, psychologists and allied professionals reexamine and redesign their theories and strategies of intervention. Counselors should examine their own values and attitudes toward aging to deal more effectively with their own, as well as society's preconceived standards of what maturity and aging entail. Society has changed and counselors who

work primarily with adults must re-evaluate their own social expectations and norms to free themselves from the habit of directly linking behavior to age.

Further study of this area is necessary to provide new ways of evaluating life-stages and their challenges to provide a framework for counseling, program development, and resources for adults. This study was therefore designed to investigate personality characteristics over various adult-age groups. The argument is that, if more is known of the changes in human needs over the adult life-span, individuals could adapt more easily to the problems and processes of aging.

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to explore age-related differences in personality characteristics over the adult life-span. The need for this investigation arose from the previously cited criticisms of life-span literature and research. Large gaps in the literature, particularly concerning young adult and middle-aged groups, inconsistent and equivocal research findings and methodological problems, demonstrated the need for further research. The increasing proportion of adult-age groups in the population also underscores the need for further research. As adults progress through the life-cycle changes and role transformations, certain common research themes emerge.

The major adult developmental issues addressed in this thesis

are: stability and change in personality characteristics, self-concept, self-identity and self-esteem, and the degree of meaning in life as a reflection of identity resolution through achievement of a purpose in life. The relationship of self-esteem to mental health and the ability to cope and make changes over the life-cycle has been noted in the literature review. Self-esteem has been shown to have a significant relationship to speech proficiency which has a strong impact on adult life-choices. Therefore, a second level of investigation, the behavioral measure of self-esteem through the measurement of oral communication anxiety, was undertaken in this study.

The review of the literature revealed wide discrepancies between sexes on age-related personality characteristics. The examination of sex-related traits across age groups was beyond the scope of the current investigation although some major points have been noted. The basic research questions formulated were:

1. Are the self-perceptions of adults consistent across age groups?
2. Are there differing personality dimensions represented in various age groups?
3. Are there differences in levels of self-concept, self-identity and self-esteem between the age groups?
4. Does the degree to which adults find a purpose in life differ across age groups?

5. Is there a relationship between the adults' level of purpose in life and degree of self-esteem?
6. Does the degree of oral communication anxiety differ across adult age groups?
7. Are there differences between the behavioral measure of speech proficiency and level of self-esteem across adult age groups?

The issues of adulthood and the inevitability of role transformations demonstrate the need for knowledgeable guidance and support in coping with crisis, learning new responses, or simply accepting that some change is unavoidable. If statistically significant differences are shown between the different age groups, further research may be generated to determine if there are critical ages during which clinical intervention would be most appropriate.

Outline of Study

Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the study; the purpose and the need for the present investigation are outlined.

Chapter 2 contains a review of the related literature on personality continuity and change, self-concept, identity and social roles. The theories of adult personality development most relevant to the study are presented: Jung, Erikson, Bühler, Maslow, Fromm, and Dabrowski. Current theories of adult developmental stages and tasks are reviewed: Havighurst, Peck, Levinson, and Gould. A short literature review of Frankl's concept of purpose in life and McCroskey's

communication apprehension also is introduced. Operational definitions of personality, self-concept and identity, maturity and development are given.

Chapter 3 describes the sample, research procedures and the three test instruments used: The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965), Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (McCroskey, 1975), and the Purpose in Life Test (Crumbaugh & Maholick, 1968). The hypotheses, definitions and data treatment methods are presented.

Chapter 4 presents the research findings and statistical analyses.

Chapter 5 discusses the results of the study.

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the study. Implications of the results for counseling and possible areas for further research are suggested.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter focuses on some of the relevant research and literature on adult personality change and development with an emphasis on self-concept and identity. The most relevant theories of adult personality development and adult-stages and developmental tasks are discussed. The degree to which adults find meaning in life and the relationship of self-esteem to speech proficiency are examined.

The review of research and literature is divided into eight sections: (1) definitions, (2) relevant personality theories, (3) adult developmental stages and tasks, (4) continuity and change, (5) self-concept/identity, (6) social-roles, (7) purpose in life, (8) communication apprehension.

1. Definitions

A. Personality. Personality is defined in many ways. The term is similar to intelligence in that no consensus exists among theorists and researchers. The definition employed reflects differing views of human nature and the human condition and the process of personality development. Assumptions made by researchers are based on their theoretical perspectives and lead to different focuses on various types of behavior. This results in diversified techniques of

investigation and measurement.

Personality may be depicted on two conceptual levels of analysis. The first level defines personality in terms of characteristics or traits that can be directly observed and result from conscious or unconscious processes that are inferred from behavior. Secondly, personality can be defined in terms of the roles engaged in and affecting an individual's functioning in society. Pervin (1970) states that "personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations." This definition emphasizes that personality is characterized both by the separate parts of personality and the relationship among these parts. One does not exist in isolation but responds to and expresses itself in relation to social situations. In this view personality is defined in terms of behaviors which are both observable and measurable. For the purpose of this thesis Pervin's definition of personality has been adopted.

B. Self-concept, self-identity. Personality includes observable individual characteristics; equally important are individual self-perceptions. Phenomenological psychologists propose that man reacts to his phenomenal world in terms of his perceptions. One's "self," both perceived and experienced, is the most important element in one's world and is, in fact, self-identity. Thus, identity serves as the organizing function of all of the parts of oneself throughout

the life-span and as such, represents an integration process (Whitbourne & Weinstock, 1979).

Self-concept is defined by Manis (1955) "as the organized collection of attitudes, opinions, and beliefs an individual holds about himself." Mead's (Manis, 1955) theory of symbolic interactionism states that one's idea of oneself grows from his interaction with others and through this he evaluates the "self as object" and formulates his own self-concept (Bengston, 1973). This view centers on the question "Who am I?" Hollander (1976) proposes that the answer can be found by a process of self-discovery, seeking a self-identity, engaging in self-evaluation and becoming aware of where one stands or how one achieves integrity. These views of self-concept are similar to Erikson's view of identity. Rogers (1951) emphasizes the importance of movement toward self-consistency and congruity between the self and others' perceptions of them.

These views of self-concept, self-identity, self-perception, and congruity all emphasize that these qualities are dynamic, open to change and development but are never static or attained. Self-esteem and self-worth are used synonymously with positive self-concept. Self-concept and identity are operationally defined as the ways in which an individual perceives and experiences oneself; one's own idea of oneself.

Adult self-concept and identity is the focus of this study and refers to the constellation of attitudes and beliefs held about the

self. Research information on adult personality characteristics is used to examine age-related differences on personality measures. The emphasis will be on how adults perceive themselves and their life experiences.

C. Psychological Maturity. In research and literature the term adult is ambiguously defined. Adult-stages of development can be defined in terms of chronological age, the achievement of age-related or developmental tasks or in psychological terms such as maturity. Allport (1937) views maturity as a term derived from physiological psychology and prefers "integration" to describe the achievement of adult status. There are no consistent indicators of physiological functioning that can be used as criteria for adult status (Rappaport, 1972). No consensus exists among researchers as to number or types of developmental tasks appropriate at each adult age (Havighurst, 1975). Psychological maturity begins and progresses through the life-cycle at varying chronological ages. However, personality may be arranged along a continuum of psychological maturity. This concept provides the basic criteria for understanding adult development and behavior.

Schachtel (1959) states that in the maturing person "development proceeds away from need - satisfaction, drive - dominated cognition, and self-seeking pleasurable relations with others toward an active, exploratory, playful openness toward the world in which the maintenance of tension (or relatedness with a loved person or object of

interest) is the embracing motivational support" (Heath, 1965). Schachtel's existential view of maturity parallels Rogers' (1955, 1961) fully-functioning individual. Allport (1937), Maslow (1968), May (1967), Erikson (1959) and Dabrowski (1972) all emphasize innate drives toward self-actualization and fulfillment of one's potential, the belief that one is competent and adequate (Goble, 1970) and are consistent with Schachtel's definition of maturity.

Ego theories portray the mature person behaving autonomously in a predominantly reality-based manner. Van Den Daele (1975) states that maturity may be seen at the higher stages of development for example: productive versus exploitative (Fromm, 1974); rational-altruistic versus amoral (Peck & Havighurst, 1960); principled versus hedonistic (Kohlberg, 1963).

Rappaport (1972) defines maturity as the ability to assume responsibility, arrive at reasonable decisions, understand others and accept minor frustrations and accept new social roles. Bischof (1976) proposes that maturity is the progression from: dependence to independence, pleasure to reality, incompetence to competence, self centeredness to other centeredness, non productivity to productivity.

The operational definition of maturity and adulthood used in this study is derived from the views presented. Maturity and adult states include, to varying degrees, the qualities of: independence, competence, rationality, responsibleness, openness to experience, other centeredness and productivity. For data collecting purposes the

youngest adult-aged group is arbitrarily defined as 15-19 years of age (mid-point = 17 years or older).

D. Development. One of the most controversial and crucial issues in life-span development is the definition of development (Troll, 1975). This controversy centers around the question whether change can occur that is not developmental. Is backward or retrogressive change developmental? Neugarten (1968) defines development as a process "in which the organism is irreversibly changed or transformed...and which vary in an orderly way with age regardless of the direction of change."

A contradictory view characterizes development as a series of qualitative changes in the process underlying development (Flavell, 1970; Piaget, 1972). Progression is from simple to complex behaviors. From this perspective once integration of new information occurs the individual becomes more clearly differentiated and no longer fits into the simpler system. However, researchers propose that in some cases adults restrict their experiences and regress rather than grow during some role or life-cycle changes.

Neugarten's (1968) position has been adopted for the purposes of this study. Changes without regard to direction are regarded as developmental.

In summary, for the purposes of this study, personality is defined as one's unique characteristics, structural and dynamic properties and social interactions. Self-concept and self-identity consist of

self-perceptions, the way one perceives oneself. These views assume that personality and identity are never static or attained but are dynamic and open to change and development. Adult status or "adulthood" is defined as psychological maturity which in turn means the relative position along a continuum of optimal personality development. Any changes, progressive or retrogressive, without concern as to direction are considered developmental.

The present study investigates personality characteristics, self-concept, and self-identity across adult-age groups. For the purpose of data collection adult status is arbitrarily defined as fifteen years of age or older.

2. Theories of Adult Personality Development

The most prominent theoretical models applicable to adult developmental psychology are those suggested by Jung (1933) and Erikson (1964). These life-span ego theories were developed from psychoanalytic thought and based on inferences drawn from clinical or empirical observations (Kimmel, 1974). The humanistic tradition emphasizing psychological maturity and ideal states of self-actualization and the realization of one's potential (Bühler, 1967; Maslow, 1968) also are relevant to this discussion. Dabrowski's (1972) structuralistic theory stressing optimal personality development is also outlined.

Life-span developmental psychology is only recently beginning to mature and tentatively adapt and generate new theories. The theoretical perspectives presented in this section are the most

relevant to the following study. Relatively new research directions are developed from these theories, producing new insights into adult phases of the life-span. Bromley (1966) states:

> We spend about one quarter of our lives growing up and three quarters growing old. It is strange, therefore, that psychologists and others have devoted most of their efforts to the study of childhood and adolescence.

A. Life-Span Ego Theories. The life-span theories of ego development of Jung (1933), Erikson (1963, 1968) and Fromm (1947, 1955) are presented in this section. These models are derived from Freudian theory with the ego responsible for the central role in the organization of personality and behavior. These theories have general schemes that allow for different rates of progression through the various stages (Van Den Daele, 1975) and are relevant to the study of adult development.

Carl Jung

Jung (1933) a contemporary of Freud, was one of the first proponents of adult personality development. He agrees with Freud that events in early life shape adult personality but Jung develops the psychoanalytic view further and argues that personality is also shaped by later life-events and by individual's goals and aspirations (Schultz, 1975). Jung also disagrees with Freud's conception of libido as purely sexual in nature. Rather, he regards libido as a generalized life energy of which sex is only one part of a whole range

of drives. In Jung's view man is living within a state of polarity in terms of the libidinal or psychic energy. He defines introversion and extraversion in terms of the direction of this energy. The individual strives to strike a balance and reach a state of equilibrium through a process of individuation in order to achieve tranquility and productibility. Self-actualization, for Jung, is the process of achieving this state of equilibrium (Bischof, 1976).

Based on his theoretical viewpoint and clinical experience, Jung proposes two stages of life after childhood. The first stage, youth, extends from puberty to the middle-years. This period involves widening life perspectives, letting go of childhood dreams, dealing with sexuality and feelings of inferiority. Jung's second life-stage begins between 35 and 40 years with changes arising from the unconscious level of the mind. In contrast with the expanding nature of youth, the second half of life involves a narrowing of interests and an inward focus (Kimmel, 1974). Jung proposes three major tendencies resulting from these age-related changes which are: reactivating childhood inclinations and characteristics; previous interests weaken and others develop; beliefs, attitudes, and values may solidify and become increasingly rigid. Jung stresses that the inward focus and self-exploration of this later stage encourages the reassessment of goals and values which leads to finding meaningfulness and psychic wholeness and self-individualization (Kimmel, 1974).

Central to Jung's theory is his conception of the self which is

comprised of all aspects of the unconscious. The self gravitates toward the achievement of personal integration and is the motivation toward self-realization. Jung suggests man is constantly striving toward self-realization and optimal personality development. Although the nature and source of development vary, Jung's notion of the tendency toward the realization of one's potential is similar to other theoretical perspectives presented in this chapter (Bühler, 1972; Dabrowski, 1972; Maslow, 1972).

Erik Erikson

Erikson's (1963, 1968) formulation of ego-development is one of the few theories that consider development beyond adolescence and over the life-span. His theory is built upon psychoanalytic theory. The emphasis is on the concept of personal identity, particularly the ways that society shapes ego-development. Personality development is viewed as a life-long process, a gradual unfolding of the individual following epigenetic principles through phase specific crises (Erikson, 1963). Erikson (1963, 1968) proposes that psychosocial development follows eight specific stages ranging from birth to death. Each stage is characterized by an emotional crisis, a bipolar task that must be successfully resolved for healthy ego-development and to enable successful adaptation in subsequent stages. For a healthy personality to develop, the resolution must be predominantly positive along a continuum of experience as it is not expected that each crisis will be completely resolved.

According to Erikson, the first four stages between birth and puberty, infancy, early childhood, play-age and school-age, are the basis upon which conflict resolution or failure rests in later stages (Kimmel, 1974). The last four stages, adolescence, young adult, adulthood, and maturity, provide a practical descriptive framework applicable to the issues and changes over the adult life-cycle. The resolution of the identity crisis is not achieved for all time but continues to be a major concern throughout the adult-years as other issues arise in later stages that affect and are affected by identity. The emphasis on the intervention between personal and social characteristics allows for regression into a previously resolved stage and allows for personality change without development (Bischof, 1976).

Erikson's (1963, 1968) adult-stages and emotional crises are described in detail to provide a foundation for the empirical study of the adult-years (Figure 2). The four adult-stages are:

(a) Adolescence - Identity versus role confusion

Erikson's fifth stage begins with the onset of puberty and centers on the formation of a sense of ego-identity. This includes finding one's role as a sexual, creative and responsible adult and making decisions as to education, careers, and basic values and beliefs. Unsuccessful resolution of these decisions may result in "identity confusion" and ambiguity as to one's central role in life.

(b) Young adult - Intimacy versus isolation

In Erikson's view only after the identity crisis is resolved is

FIGURE 2

Psychosocial Models of Adult Development

Age	Erikson	Bühler	Gould	Levinson and associates	Havighurst	Peck	Age
15-			Getting away from parents.		Adolescence-accept oneself and sex role.		15-
		Tentative goal selection.		Leaving the family.		Integrity	
20-	Intimacy versus isolation.						20-
25-			Working on the business of living.	Getting into adult world.	Early adulthood selecting mate.		25-
				"Should I make a change?" (unstable period).			
30-		Define and specify goals.	Questioning what life is all about.				30-
35-	Generativity versus ego stagnation						35-
				Settling down.	Middle adulthood working on one's life.		
40-			Awareness of time squeeze-returning to fam.	Becoming one's one man.		Ego differentiation versus work role preoccupation. Body transcendence versus body preoccupation	40-
45-		Assessment of goals-success or failure.		Disparity between what I've got and want			45-
50-			Growing satisfaction with marriage and friends.				50-
				Restabilization period-outcome of mid-life transition.			
55-		Acceptance of degree of fulfilment.	Mellowing and reviewing what life is all about.		Later maturity adjustment to old age.	Positive adaptation to inner status	55-
60-							60-

Source: Adapted from American Journal of Psychiatry 135:6, June 1978.

an individual able to build an intimate relationship. Intimacy is the ability to establish close and warm affiliations with sexual partners, spouses or friends while retaining one's individuality. A negatively balanced outcome will result in establishing stereotyped and formalized relationships and a strong sense of isolation.

(c) Adulthood - Generativity versus stagnation

The seventh and longest stage is also the most productive and may encompass young adulthood through old-age. This stage focuses on parenthood, a sense of continuity with future generations and vocational or occupational achievements. Unsuccessful resolution of these developmental crises gives rise to feelings of stagnation and lack of a sense of fulfilment in life.

(d) Maturity - Integrity versus despair

The final stage of life is characterized by an increasing awareness of aging and the imminence of death. This confrontation with one's finiteness may occur during earlier stages and may be set off by declining health or retirement or the death of significant others. The unsuccessful resolution of this crisis point results in feelings of despair and a sense of wasting one's life and total meaninglessness.

Erik Fromm

Fromm's (1947) theoretical framework describes man's relationship to society and its effect on the individual. He suggests that modern man has evolved so that he is no longer dependent on nature but now finds himself isolated from his fellow man. Fromm's view is that

alienation in modern society is almost total and pervades all of man's relationships: to his work, to things he consumes, to the state, to his fellow man, and to himself. Childhood feelings of belonging, dependence and security are derived from the parent-child relationship. Independence is achieved in adulthood but the early sources of security found in childhood are lost.

Fromm proposes that individuals have five basic needs which arise from one's lonely existence: the need for a sense of personal identity, the need for rootedness or feelings of being a part of society, the need to be creative, to relate well with his fellow man and to have a consistent orientation toward his life (Schultz, 1975). Society, however, does not provide adequate means for satisfying these needs. Fromm (1955) describes man's feelings of "isolation and aloneness which everyone has...as the separation between private and public existence." If a person is unable to bridge the separation between his inner and outer world he becomes alienated. If a relatedness to the world and others has not been achieved, meaninglessness follows. Only an individual who has relatedness to the world can set goals and become committed. This is the key in Fromm's theoretical view.

The ego-development life-span theories of Jung (1933), Erikson (1963, 1968) and Fromm (1947, 1955) have been presented. These three theories have strong implications for the study of adult personality development.

B. Humanists. The self-actualizing or fully-functioning person is presented in psychological literature as the healthy ideal toward which growth and change are directed. Therapists often describe psychological characteristics proposed by fulfilment theorists as the behaviors they endeavour to achieve themselves and attempt to facilitate and move clients toward. Thus humanistic, or third-force psychologists are briefly reviewed as they are deemed relevant to this study of adult personality development (Bühler, 1972; Maslow, 1968).

Abraham Maslow

Maslow (1968) proposes that man innately possesses the drive to become a fully-functioning human being, fulfill one's potential and to self-actualize. He criticizes psychologists' concern with mental illness and their failure to conceptualize a meaningful construct of mental health. In Maslow's organismic view the healthy person is progressing toward self-actualization which he describes as follows:

> Such a person, by virtue of what he has become, assumes a new relation to his society and indeed, to society in general. He is not only transcends himself in various ways; he also transcends his culture. He resists enculturation. He becomes more detached from his culture and from his society. He becomes a little more a member of his species and a little less a member of his local group.
>
> (p. 11)

In this view to reach the state of self-actualization a hierarchy of needs must be satisfied in sequence. These are physiological,

safety, belongingness, and love needs, a positive level of self-esteem is the last prerequisite for self-actualization. "Once self-esteem is achieved, the individual is free to concentrate on actualizing his potentialities" (Fitts, 1971). Maslow states that satisfaction of higher level biological needs which emerge when the lower physiological and psychological needs are satisfied lead to the altruistic and creative behavior of a self-actualizing person. The failure to recognize these higher needs, which are termed 'metaneeds', leads to frustrated idealism and the hopelessness Maslow states is experienced by many people today.

Development for Maslow is viewed as a continuous process toward a fully functioning personality and self-actualization, which is only infrequently achieved, manifests itself usually in aged persons. According to Maslow's theoretical framework, alienation and meaninglessness can be viewed as a lack of commitment to goals and feelings of hopelessness and frustrated idealism. In Maslow's view healthy individuals are able to achieve a better understanding of their inner-selves and the world around them.

Charlotte Bühler

Based on her biographical studies, Bühler (1967, 1968) presents one of the first developmental models that encompassed the entire life-span (see Figure 2). Bühler views human life as primarily goal directed with individuals living with self-determined purpose and

intent (Bühler, 1968). Central to Bühler's theory is the concept of "intentionality," which is the setting of goals. This is viewed as the unifying factor in individuals' lives, serving to direct behavior and actions. Ultimately, this developmental process lends to self-fulfillment, and the realization of goals extending beyond oneself and experienced as a "meaningful" life (Bugental, 1967; Bühler, 1967).

Bühler views the life-cycle as an orderly and continuous developmental process which she divides into the following five phases:

(1) childhood without self-determination of goals (age 0-15);

(2) tentative goals selection and experimental self-determination of goals (age 15-25);

(3) definite and specific self-determination of goals (age 25-45);

(4) assessment of goals in terms of failure or satisfaction (age 45-65);

(5) acknowledgement of degree of fulfilment of goals (age 60 and over)

(Bischof, 1976; Kimmel, 1974).

She proposes similarities between the biological processes of growth, stability and decline, and psychosocial processes of expansion, culmination and the reduction in activities and achievements (Kimmel, 1974). She visualizes both of these developmental processes as curvilinear in nature and emphasizes the wide variation between individuals. Biological development may frequently precede psychosocial development. For example, older adults' mental capacities often allow

relatively high levels of creativity after the decline of their physical abilities.

The humanistic psychological viewpoints of Maslow (1968) and Bühler (1967, 1968) discussed in this section are pertinent to the study of adult-life stages.

C. Structuralist Theory

Kazimierz Dabrowski

Dabrowski (1970, 1972) in his theory of Positive Disintegration views personality growth as evolutionary movement through multi-levels of development. This theory, like Piaget's (1972) proposes that development takes place when the existing and previously integrated personality structure is disrupted and followed by a period of disintegration both within the individual and one's environment. Subsequently, individuals reintegrate and complete the adaptive process reaching higher levels of personality functioning and thus achieve their potentialities. Development is viewed in terms of a hierarchy in which the more primitive levels of functioning are superseded or transcended and the next level achieved as the individual follows his developmental instinct. Erikson's views of identity synthesis and resynthesis are similar to Dabrowski's disintegration and integration and similarly, they both stress the importance of crisis resolution (Dabrowski, 1964).

The major conflict Dabrowski emphasizes is similar to Erikson's

adolescent stage of identity versus identity diffusion. Dabrowski describes this crisis as an increased level of self-awareness, self-criticism and a progression toward optimal personality development. Dabrowski does not consider anxiety, nervousness and mental disorders as negative signs of mental illness but rather signs of positive developmental processes necessary for creativity and personality growth. Only by going through these disintegrative processes do individuals reach the higher levels of personality functioning and their own potentialities. For Dabrowski, disintegration may occur as part of the life-cycle in role transitions and changes or as part of internal self-identity changes over the developmental life-cycle, and as such his theoretical perspective is important in the study of adult personality development.

In summary, some of the theories most pertinent to the study of adult personality development are briefly reviewed. The theories presented include those developed from a Freudian basis, humanistic theories stressing the optimal level of self-fulfilment and Dabrowski's (1972) structuralist view. These theories differ as to nature, source, and process of development, but all emphasize growth and development over the entire life-span.

3. Developmental Stages and Tasks

There is a recent trend in adult developmental research toward elucidating a number of psychosocial developmental stages or tasks

(Brim, 1976; Gould, 1975; Havighurst, 1953, 1963, 1975; Levinson, 1977, 1978; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1976; Peck, 1968; Sheehy, 1976; Vaillant, 1972). These views parallel Erikson's sequential stage development model and emphasize that resolution of stages may be accompanied by transitions, psychological crisis and growth. All of this research is based on occupational/career roles and as such, males are over-represented relative to females in the following studies. The major developmental stage and task models indicating tasks and associated chronological ages are presented in Figure 2. Erikson's (1963, 1968) psychosocial model of adult development, from which many of the stage and task models are derived, is also included in this figure.

Robert Peck

Peck's (1968) ego-stage theory parallels Erikson's theory of life-span development. He focuses on and attempts to clarify the crucial issues of middle and old-age. It is Peck's premise that the basic task of generativity in Erikson's last task is often resolved in young adulthood, 40 or 50 years before the end of the life-cycle. Peck's four specific tasks or issues of middle-age are:

(a) Valuing wisdom versus valuing physical powers.

This stage involves a change in value placed only on physical power or attractiveness to an emphasis on valuing life experiences and mental abilities. Peck characterizes this as a change from an orientation from the "hands" to the "head."

(b) Socializing versus sexualizing in human relationships.

The emphasis shifts from viewing others primarily as sexual objects to a redefinition of men and women as unique individuals and companions resulting in deeper levels of understanding and more satisfying relationships.

(c) Cathectic flexibility versus cathetic impoverishment.

Peck describes this task as "emotional flexibility" or emotional openness that enables one to reinvest one's emotional connections with others and widen one's circle of friends as family and friends change through role decrement, loss of children, retirement and death.

(d) Mental flexibility versus mental rigidity.

This crucial issue centers on openness to new experiences and new ideas in contrast to a rigid inflexible style in which the individual becomes increasingly closed to new ideas, opinions, actions, and appears to be operating by a set of fixed inflexible rules. This process is often viewed as characteristic of the elderly but Peck proposes that it first becomes critical in the middle years.

Robert Havighurst

Robert Havighurst (1953, 1963, 1975) proposes a stage theory in which "developmental tasks" must be achieved in sequence over the life-cycle. This theory is similar to Erikson's in that these tasks arise at a particular period in life. Successful achievement of

tasks gives rise to happiness and success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness, disapproval by society and difficulty in later stages. There are three sets of developmental tasks which are pertinent to adult personality development and they are related to life-satisfaction in these periods. The stages are:

(a) Developmental tasks of early adulthood which include selecting a mate, learning to live with a marriage partner, starting a family, rearing children and managing a home. Getting started in an occupation, taking on civic responsibility, and finding a congenial social group are central tasks to this stage.

(b) Developmental tasks of middle-age which are achieving adult civic and social responsibility, establishing and maintaining an economic standard of living and assisting teen-age children to become responsible and happy adults. Tasks of this stage also include developing adult leisure time activities, relating to one's spouse as a person, accepting and adjusting to physiological changes of middle-age and adjusting to aging parents.

(c) Developmental tasks of later maturity which include adjusting to decreasing physical strength and health, adjusting to retirement and reduced income, and adjusting to the death of a spouse. This stage also involves establishing an explicit affiliation with one's age group, meeting social and civic obligations, and establishing satisfactory physical living arrangements.

Havighurst's (1953, 1963, 1975) perspective on aging focuses on

the importance of three broad categories of social roles: work, leisure and education. As life-span changes occur and adult-life unfolds, social roles are reordered and new roles achieved through self and societal expectations. These expectations are strongly influenced by the normative conceptions of the roles that are considered appropriate for various age, sex, and status positions. Havighurst's view of socialization strongly influences the process of identity formation as part of the self-concept and identity as noted earlier, including the social roles individuals internalize as one's own (Whitbourne & Weinstock, 1979).

As stated earlier, Erikson's (1963, 1968) psychosocial crises are similar to Havighurst's (1953, 1963, 1975) developmental tasks. However, Havighurst proposes that successful achievement of these tasks is retained over the life-span unlike Erikson who stresses that crisis or task resolution is not permanent (Bischof, 1976). Erikson stresses inner or ego-development while Havighurst emphasizes social roles.

Daniel Levinson

Levinson (1977, 1978) constructed a theory of adult male development. A group of 40 men aged 35-45 were studied and drawn from four occupational groups. Specific periods or eras were defined and the accompanying developmental tasks that were to be completed during these eras. Levinson identified these periods in terms of their

developmental tasks. The six most relevant developmental tasks are:

(a) leaving the family, a bridge between adolescence and the adult world,

(b) getting into the adult-world and building a life-structure,

(c) age 30 transition, re-evaluating and changing the first life structure,

(d) settling down and building a more stable life-structure,

(e) mid-life transition, initiation into middle-age, and

(f) restabilization and integration of the life-structure.

These eras are loosely age-related but vary according to the individual's particular life-stage and are described as periods of crisis, transition and growth. In particular, the mid-life transition is viewed as a time having the potential for developmental advance and of great threat to the self. Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee (1976) described Freud, Jung and Ghandi as examples of men who encountered a mid-life crisis at 40, overcame it and progressed to creative achievements. F. Scott Fitzgerald and Dylan Thomas could not cope with this crisis and it destroyed them. Levinson proposes that this crisis is essential to resolve the necessary changes in the life-structures and to avoid stagnation.

Roger Gould

Gould (1975) recognizes that adults unlike butterflies do not "emerge fully formed and on cue, after a succession of developmental

stages of childhood...equipped with all the accountrements, such as wisdom and rationality." He postulates adult developmental sequences with continued growth as the ideal. Each of the stages and changes can result in two opposite outcomes. Change can be vitalizing and lend to a more comprehensive understanding of one's self or to a simpler definition of one's self. Gould surveyed male and female psychiatric outpatients and outlined six stages relevant to the study. The six stages are:

(1) becoming independent of parents (ages 18-22),

(2) becoming autonomous and concentrating energies on competence (ages 22-28),

(3) questioning what life is about (ages 29-34),

(4) existential questions of one's self and values (ages 35-43),

(5) a growing personal stability and satisfaction with marriage and friends (ages 43-50),

(6) restabilization and mellowing (ages 51-60).

For Gould, the process of change concerns arriving at new beliefs about one's self, the world in particular and the child's idealized feelings of adulthood.

The foregoing generalized descriptions of stages of the adult life-cycle are built on Eriksonian psychosocial theory. These theories all propose sequential developmental stages and tasks accompanied by forms of transitions and crisis. Chronological age has been loosely linked to developmental stages for convenience and

clarity, however, the theorists emphasize that development occurs in interaction with social, biological and personal factors and is not necessarily age-related (Riegel, 1975). Concepts of adult developmental stages and tasks imply age-related personality change. The dynamic personality theoretical models presented earlier suggest adult personality change is a result of progression and transformation toward more advanced stages of development (Dabrowski, 1972; Erikson, 1968; Maslow, 1968). A fundamental similarity exists between both stage and personality theorists as they both imply developmental changes in personality structure either as a result of progression through stages and the completion of tasks or as a result of development toward self-fulfilment and optimal personality development (Havighurst, 1973; Levinson, 1977; Peck, 1968). The models noted are largely based on male populations.

There are four general conclusions that can be reached from the previously cited developmental stage and task literature. They are:

(a) The initiation into adulthood, mid-life crisis and later reflective stages are common to all theories.

(b) The changes and transitions may be stretched out for 10 or 20 years.

(c) The individual approaching mid-life is undergoing transitions and personality changes.

(d) When these developmental changes occur in crisis dimensions there is some evidence they are positive experiences and "bring for

many individuals more happiness than they had found in younger years" (Brim, 1976).

4. Continuity and change

This study considers differences in adult personality as a function of aging. Continuities and changes in personality characteristics and traits over the life-cycle have been a major emphasis of theory and research; however no consensus has resulted.

The major theoretical views of developmental changes in adult personality can be classified into two central themes (Bischof, 1976; Mortimer & Simmons, 1978; Troll, 1975). The first theme stresses continuity and stability over the life-span (Byrne, 1966; Chown, 1968; Maddox, 1968; Mischel, 1968; Neugarten, 1968; Woodruff & Birren, 1972). James (1950) underscores this continuity theme when he proposes that by age thirty "character has set like plaster and will never soften again." Freud (1959) contends that the basic personality is established by age six.

The second and contrasting theme of developmental change stresses that adult personality development is a process that continues throughout the life-span. Clark (1967) states "a person is not a pile of stones, no matter how artfully arranged, laid down in concrete early in life and standing immutable." Theorists and researchers supporting this changing and discontinuous view propose that rather than minimizing changes and attempting to preserve equilibrium, adults

incorporate internal and life-stage changes, become transformed and develop into more integrated and mature persons (Erikson, 1950, 1964; Greenleigh, 1974; Lowenthal & Weiss, 1976; Schaie & Gribbon, 1975).

Research studies present equivocal findings, with data indicating that adult personality generally remains the same over the life-span (Block & Haan, 1971; Maas & Kuypers, 1974; Mischel, 1968), while contrary evidence shows that it differs in some respects (Lubin, 1964; Nawas, 1971). The following section presents relevant research studies of these polarized viewpoints.

Research studies supporting personality stability

Neugarten (1968) describes the consistency and stability of personality as the "institutionalization" of the self which begins in early childhood and remains constant across the life-span. This view proposes personality is consistent if enough is known of past personal history. She proposes that there is no single pattern by which people grow old and suggests:

> that persons age in ways that are consistent with their earlier life histories...and...within broad limits of social and biological conditions an individual will grow old along a path that is predictable from earlier points in his life and predictable from knowing something about his personality structure, his coping style, his success at adapting to earlier life events and his expectations of life.
>
> (Neugarten, 1968)

Woodruff & Birren (1972) examined ontogenetic and generational change in personality. They noted that few personality inventories

have been used in life-span studies although they are reliable and valid measures of personality. Longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons were made on the California Test of Personality for three cohort groups. Adolescents were tested at a mean age of 19 years and again at a mean age of 44 years. There were no significant differences in the subjects' scores over the 25 year age-span; they described themselves similarly at both ages. However, when the respondents described themselves in retrospect, as they thought they had answered at adolescence, the responses varied widely. The subjects tended to rate themselves lower on factors of personal and social adjustment from the middle-aged perspective than they actually did at adolescence. This research concluded that almost invariably the subjects felt they had changed positively since adolescence, although these changes had not occurred and traits remained constant (Kimmel, 1974). This may be a function of adolescents responding to questionnaires as they ideally would like to be, or think they should be, while adults may respond in a more immediate manner.

Research executed at the Institute of Human Development at Berkeley yielded significant studies supporting stability. Block & Haan (1971) longitudinally tested subjects from early adolescence to mid-thirties. They concluded that "the unity or consistency of personality is compellingly apparent." Their research accentuated the importance of early childhood experiences to personality development.

Maas & Kuypers (1974) concurrently studied the parents of the subjects in the previously noted study over a period of 40 years and found continuity of personality through middle and old-age stages. Their data also supports the position that role changes such as divorce or widowhood are highly influential in changing patterns of social behavior in later years.

Byrne (1966) found a large degree of stability in self-reported descriptions of personality traits. Similarly, Mischel (1968) in a review of research using self-descriptive studies reported a large degree of stability in personality structures.

Leon, Gillum, Gillum & Gouze (1979) evaluated personality stability and change over a 30 year period, from middle to old-age using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Results indicated that personality strengths in middle-age generally continued through the stresses of aging. The researchers concluded that there was notable stability in personality traits over time.

Costa & McCrae (1976) using a cross-sectional research design studied male subjects using the Cattell Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire. The subjects were divided into three age groups: (1) 25-34 years ($\bar{X}$ = 31.7), (2) 35-54 years ($\bar{X}$ = 43.7), and (3) 55-82 years ($\bar{X}$ = 60.3). The results indicated that there were two clusters of personality traits showing consistent structure across age groups, adjustment-anxiety and introversion-extraversion. However, there were differences between groups on the dimension of

experiential style characterized by an orientation toward openness to experience versus closedness or narrow-mindedness. The primary content of the youngest men's experience were affect and aesthetic sensitivities. Openness to new ideas and values and an awareness of one's inner experience was the predominant content of the middle-aged subject's style. The older men were oriented toward a more closed experiential style characterized as conforming, conventional and narrow-minded. These results suggested there were differences across age groups in the content of experience one is opened to, or closed to.

Costa & McCrae (1976) noted that most self-report inventories primarily measure the relatively stable traits of anxiety-adjustment and introversion-extraversion. They propose the use of these stable measures may result in research findings showing continuity across ages in personality (Byrne, 1966; Mischel, 1968; Neugarten, 1964) and suggest that further research on the dimension of openness to experience may demonstrate important developmental changes.

In summary, there is research evidence of continuity in personality across ages. The strongest arguments have indicated stability in cognitive style (Mischel, 1968) and self-descriptions (Byrne, 1966; Leon, Gillum, Gillum & Gouze, 1979; Woodruff & Birren, 1972). The following section examines research findings on age-related personality change.

Research studies supporting personality change

Other investigations demonstrate that changes in personality do occur and characteristics are not constant throughout the adult years of the life-span (Becker, 1968).

Schaie & Parham (1976) hypothesized that the theoretical stability of adult personality traits may be as much in error as the previous age-decrement model of intelligence, learning and psychomotor skills which resulted from the comparison of cohorts with different base levels of ability (Baltes & Schaie, 1974; Lerner, 1976; Schaie, 1973).

The Kansas City studies using projective tests indicated age-related personality changes which included: an emphasis on inner processes, a change in ego-style, and a change in sex-role perceptions (Kimmel, 1974). Rosen & Neugarten (1964) found a tendency toward increased introspection and an emphasis on inner processes as age increased. Lubin's (1964) data concurred with the earlier research and found a decrease in the ego-energy over a five year test-retest interval. The conclusions from these studies indicate that, over the aging process, the tendency is toward responding to inner rather than outer stimulation and a trend toward increased introversion. These findings parallel Cumming & Henry's (1961) theory of disengagement which is discussed later in this theory.

A second personality change that is proposed by researchers to be associated with age is a decrease in ego-energy, as measured by the change from active to passive mastery. Gutmann (1964), using

projective tests, found a shift with age toward passive or conforming, and magical or maladaptive styles. This is in contrast to the active, risk-taking and more vigorous styles he found to be characteristic of earlier life-stages.

Nawas (1971) using a longitudinal research design tested 378 high school seniors and eight years later retested them in young adulthood. He found that there were significant personality changes and differences in the efficiency of ego-functioning over time. Nawas (1971) concluded that the results of longitudinal investigations indicated "that the assumption of continuity in human development is too simplistic, if not misleading, and that behavior is subject to greater changes than...current theories lead one to believe."

The results of investigations by Protinsky (1975) and Kuhlen (1962) concurred with Nawas' (1971) findings of personality change over age. Kuhlen (1962) reported that adolescents and the over 55 age group have lower adjustment scores on various instruments and showed more negative feelings than middle or young adult-age groups. Marcia (1966, 1967) measured ego-identity in adolescents and young adults by means of semi-structured interviews. As anticipated, the results found the young adult group reflected the strongest sense of identity indicating an increase in a sense of identity over age.

There is research evidence that the aging process affects male and female personality differently. Neugarten & Gutmann (Kimmel, 1974) found that older adults when compared to younger groups, view

older men as more submissive and older women as more dominant than the younger age group. This role reversal implies personality changes and emphasizes the differential effect of aging on sexes.

The literature and research on personality continuity and change have been presented. The results are conflicting and polarized viewpoints emerge, with some researchers stressing personality stability over the aging process, while others stress change across age. It appears that there is more than one pattern of change over the adult years (Costa & McCrae, 1976). Some personality traits may not change but remain stable over time, while other characteristics may change as they are influenced by the interaction with the environment and experiences such as role transitions.

The following section presents research findings on self-concept and identity and further examines the concept of ego-functioning presented in this section as evidence for personality change.

5. Self concept/identity

The importance of examining age-related and life-cycle changes in self-concept and identity has been frequently noted in developmental literature and research (Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga, 1975; Neugarten, 1968; Pierce & Chiriboga, 1979). Wheeler (Bühler & Allan, 1972) emphasizes the importance of identity when he states:

> Identity is a coherent sense of self...Identity can survive major conflict provided the supporting framework of life is stable, but not when that framework is lost. One cannot exert leverage except from a fixed point.

This view is similar to Erikson's (1968) which he terms a "subjective sense of sameness and continuity." Dibner (1975) also emphasizes the need to be alert to the factors influencing self-concept and identity, particularly self-esteem, since anxiety about the self leads to ego-constriction and inability to develop to optimal developmental levels.

Theoretically, if an individual's self-concept and identity can be understood, then one's perceptions and behaviors may also be understood. Self-theorists view this understanding as a necessary condition for facilitating change and it is of utmost importance to an examination of age-related personality variables.

Identity is defined as one's self-definitions and self-attributes on a variety of personal and interpersonal characteristics. Positive self-concept and identity give rise to relatively high levels of self-esteem. As stated earlier in this thesis, self-concept, identity and self-esteem are crucial to the formation and development of personality over the life-span. The research questions these concepts raise are:

(1) Do the levels of identity and self-esteem increase or decrease with age?

(2) Are there differences between adult age groups on identity and self-esteem levels?

Research Studies

Research studies examining self-concept, self-identity, and self-esteem have traditionally focused on the development of self-concept in childhood stages (Coppersmith, 1967), the ego-identity status in adolescence (Marcia, 1966), and life-satisfaction in the aged (Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin, 1961).

Research findings on the relationship of self-concept, self-identity, and self-esteem to young and middle-aged adults can be categorized in two ways although results are ambiguous. The first view hypothesizes there is a negative correlation between self-concept and age. This viewpoint reasons that the current youth orientation emphasizing physical attractiveness creates potential conflicts for those in the later stages of the adult life-cycles (Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga, 1975). This negative image of aging leads to the hypothesis that the self-concept will become increasingly negative and self-esteem declines over age (Rose, 1965; Sontag, 1972; Ziller, 1967). In contrast, the second view proposes that, as individuals age, they may view themselves more positively than younger age groups (Hess & Bradshaw, 1970; Mason, 1954). In addition to these two contrasting views there are strong indications that sex differences strongly affect research results.

Mason (1954) studied aspects of the self-concept among three age groups. The groups consisted of two older-aged groups, institutionalized subjects over age 55, and independent subjects over age 60.

The third group was comprised of young parents whose mean age was 34.13 (S.D.=5.55). The subjects were given six psychological measures of self-concept. Results indicated that the young adults reported significantly more positive attitudes of self-worth than the other two older groups who demonstrated more negative self-evaluations.

Rose (1965), a social gerontologist, investigated the self-concept over the aging process. He concluded that, as most of the changes associated with aging are currently negatively evaluated, the result is disengagement, depression, and negative self-perceptions. Sontag (1972) related these negative concepts to younger life-cycle groups. According to her view, society equates well-being and self-worth to youth, leading to anxiety and reduced levels of self-esteem over the aging process, particularly for women.

Hess & Bradshaw (1970) compared four age groups: high school students, college students, adults aged 35-40, and older adults aged 55-65. The four groups had relatively high income and educational levels and all of the adults were employed. Research findings showed an increase in positive levels of self-concepts for the older aged groups. This research found a significant relationship between positive self-concept and life-satisfaction and the achievement of life-goals.

Monge (1975) studied the continuity of the structure of the self-concept using a semantic differential scale in which subjects were asked to rate the concept of "my characteristic self" on 21

descriptive adjectives. The subjects ranged in ages from nine to 89 years. The results indicated significant age and sex differences on four factors: achievement/leadership, congeniality/sociability, adjustment, and masculinity/femininity. A strong increase in the subjects' positive descriptions of self on the trait achievement/leadership for both sexes, from the period of adolescence into the period of young adulthood (20-34 years) was determined. Significant differences were found between sex groups. Males and females over 65 tended to rate themselves highly across all traits while females aged 34-49 and 50-64 years did not. The increase after 65 for these women may indicate a more active or 'leading' role after their husband's retirement or death. The results for the component of adjustment in Monge's (1975) study indicated there was a decline in positive responses in two age groups which was particularly apparent in the males, from adolescence to young adulthood, and again at post-retirement. This may reflect the role adjustments and anxieties of these men at adolescence while they were establishing themselves in careers and marriage. In later years the decline in positive adjustment may reflect the men's role losses due to the end of careers or loss of spouses. The age trend on the congeniality/sociability trait showed little variation until the commencement of retirement. The author stated that this increase was probably the result of this particular sample, as the over 65 age group were recruited from social clubs and senior citizens' centers.

Lyell (1973) compared adults and adolescents on the variable of self-esteem. Twenty-five semantic scales were filled out according to "myself as I would like to be" and "myself as I really am," and were given to 119 adults (24-27 years) and to 112 adolescents. The distance between "Self" and "Ideal" was used as the index of self-evaluation or level of self-esteem. The adult men evaluated themselves positively on fourteen scales, while young adult women evaluated themsevles positively on five scales. The adolescent boys evaluated themselves positively on six scales, while the adolescent girls evaluated themselves positively on four scales. This study found that both male and female adolescents and adult women expressed a much greater degree of negative self-evaluation than did the adult men. These results indicated that, when males emerged from the low prestige period of adolescence, their self-esteem increased with the more highly recognized adulthood status and work role (Lyell, 1973). The relatively negative self-evaluation of the adolescent female persisted in young adulthood.

Czaja (1975) studied male and female subjects from 20 to 75 years. All of the older subjects lived in the community, since earlier studies have shown differences between institutionalized and non-institutionalized individuals (Gordon & Uniacke, 1971). Czaja modified Monge's (1975) adaptation of the Smith Self Concept Scale and used it to measure real and ideal self-concepts. The life-satisfaction scale devised by Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin (1961) was also used. The

results of this study indicated both real and ideal self-concept scores and life-satisfaction scores increased as the subject ages. In addition, the differences between the real and ideal self-concept decreased as age increased. The congruence between real and ideal self confirms the earlier noted studies of Chodorkoff (1954) and Hanlon, Hofstaetter & O'Connor (1954) and indicates a more positive level of self-esteem over aging. Further research is needed to assess how and what factors change over the aging process.

As noted earlier in this section, there are relatively few studies examining self-concept and self-identity and self-esteem over the life-span, although the importance of this emphasis has been repeatedly noted. There appears to be more recent research pointing to an increase in self-esteem over age; however, the results are inconclusive. The differential effects of aging among males and females are frequently cited.

6. Social-Roles

The definition of personality cited earlier in this chapter stressed that individuals are not isolated but are related to their social roles and their interactions with others (Pervin, 1970). Research indicates that specific personality changes occur in adulthood in response to changing roles and social stiuations (Chiriboga & Thurnher, 1976; Roscow, 1973).

Social-roles are internalized so that they become part of the

personality and are an important factor in continuity or change in the individual (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978; Troll, 1975). Thus, another method of investigating changes in personality is the examination of age-changes in social-roles and the positions the individual occupies within society. Neugarten (1968) proposes that historical time and life-time interweave in the content of a third dimension, socially defined time. She proposes that a mechanism she terms the "social clock" governs behavior throughout adult-life and is created by the interaction of age-related roles such as: age-norms, age-constraints, and age-status systems. Therefore, there is an age-role identity as well as a sex-role identity and a socio-economic identity (Kimmel, 1974).

Two sociological theories of aging, the disengagement and the activity theory, will be presented. They are based on cross-sectional data from the Kansas City studies. They emphasize the importance of social-roles to adult personality change and are relevant to this study.

Disengagement Theory

Cumming & Henry (1961), using longitudinal data, emphasize the importance of social-roles on adult personality change in the theory of disengagement. Essentially, this functionalist theory states that as one ages a mutual withdrawal occurs between the individual and the mainstream of society. Ego-investment in previously held social roles declines and correspondingly, an increased emphasis is focused on one's

inner world (Kimmel, 1974). This gradual disengagement is viewed not only as a normal process but as a positive change resulting in optimum aging and relatively high levels of life-satisfaction and self-esteem (Maddox, 1968). The lessening of role obligations and constraints and decreasing family, work, and community expectations enable one the freedom to pursue personally satisfying activities and new ideas and to prepare for the final disengagement, death.

The disengagement theory has generated a large amount of gerontological research, related primarily to the over 60 year age group (Botinwick, 1973; Havighurst, 1968). Later researchers applied this theory to earlier adult-stages: middle-age and the mid-forties (Bischof, 1976).

Activity Theory

Activity theory is a contradictory concept to disengagement theory and parallels the prevailing North American life ideal of activity, work, and productivity (Spencer & Dorr, 1975). Havighurst, Neugarten & Tobin (1968) argue that lost roles and activities, through retirement or loss of spouse, must be replaced with new roles in order to achieve adequate levels of self-satisfaction, morale and self-esteem over the aging process. Maddow & Eisdorper (1962) found a positive correlation between morale and level of activity. Research by Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin (1965) concluded that life-satisfaction and morale did not decrease with age but was higher for respondents

who engaged in higher levels of activity. This study also found evidence of disengagement. However, psychological and social disengagement did not appear to be mutual processes. This study concluded that psychological disengagement or the interiority of the personality occurred as early as 50 years and provided, on the average, a decline in social-role activity in the over 60 and 70 year old group (Kimmel, 1974).

The following section explores research findings on age-related social-roles and their effect on personality changes.

Research Studies

Rosow (1973) suggested that the process of aging may be viewed as a type of life-crisis. As an individual ages, one's life is interspersed by critical role losses such as widowhood or retirement that are cumulative and largely irreversible. The responses to these various life-crises vary greatly between individuals according to personality factors. Rosow arranged these factors on a continuum according to ability to cope with stress. At one extreme was the low risk group with personality traits of stability, flexibility and the ability to endure severe pressures. Brittleness and a low tolerance for stress was at the other coping extreme. Schossberg (1976) emphasized the inevitability of role changes in adulthood and described the process as involving confusion, conflict and crisis. She described feelings of helplessness as the dominant theme of adulthood which often accompanies a role transformation.

Schaie & Parnham (1974) investigated social responsibility in adulthood to determine the impact of socio-cultural change upon adult behavior. They utilized a mixed-model research design which used short-term longitudinal studies across a wide range of ages and cross-sectional studies at different time points. A scale of social responsibility taken from the California Personality Inventory was modified by Schaie for use with older adults. The socially responsible person was described as willingly accepting the consequence of his own behavior and having a sense of obligation to the group. He had integrity and a sense of commitment and was dependable and trustworthy (Gough, McCroskey & Meehl, 1951). The results indicated there was an overall socio-cultural impact on social responsibility for all age levels that were strongly affected by their generation membership and the sex of the subject. There was a trend toward reduced social responsibility with increased age for men; however, this was not the case for women. Schaie & Parnham (1974) concluded there were no stable ontogenetic patterns in the adult life-cycle, for the sample aged 21-84 years, for the variable of social responsibility. The data indicated there was also an overall trend of reduced social responsibility with increased age, except in the case of women.

Atchley (1976) explored the differences between older men and women and how they differed on social and psychological characteristics. The comparisons covered attitudes toward work and retirement, self-concept, psychological well-being, self-reported health, perceived

income adequacy, and social participation. Variables of age, marital status, education, and adequacy of income were all controlled. They found that the women in the study, in comparison to the men, demonstrated a greater frequency of "negative" psychological characteristics. The aging process appeared to have a greater impact on women in this study as indicated by symptoms of anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, and sensitivity to criticism, whereas men seemed to be more susceptible to anomie and identification of self as "old." Atchley concluded that based on this research, women respond to aging with high levels of psychological stress and men respond to aging in terms of how it affects their relationship to the social-system, participation in the labor force, retirement, and relations to friends. Men are not as likely to react to aging with symptoms of psychological stress (Sontag, 1972).

Currently, young women are marrying and bearing children earlier than the previous generation (Cook, 1976). Thus, families reach the post-parental stage at a younger age than previously. Research findings indicate the departure of the children from home is traumatic for women whose role is primarily maternal (Bardwick, 1972). In contrast, other research findings showed that post-parental stage women displayed more positive self-concepts than preretirement women with children still at home. This may indicate the women without children face the "empty nest" not with feelings of emptiness, but with a sense of relief and freedom (Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga,

1975). Women tend to shift their self-image at this stage from relationships to others to their own abilities and feelings (Bischof, 1976). The absence of children did not affect the self-image of men, possibly because of their lesser time involvement in parenthood (Back, 1971).

Generally, men tend to be occupationally oriented and the occupational role is an integral part of male self-esteem and personality development (Fasteau, 1974). Because male self-esteem and identity are occupationally defined and central to self-concept role, loss through retirement may be accompanied by loss of self-esteem and identity (Ullmann, 1976).

Back (1971) and Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga (1975) propose that the social-stages of life are more significant than chronological age in explaining personal characteristics and differences over the life-course. Research demonstrated that all age groups agree on the general appropriateness of age and role categories for a variety of behaviors (McVeigh, 1977; Neugarten, Moore & Lowe, 1965). Further research in this area would appear appropriate and useful.

In summary, the importance of social-roles as an integral part of adult personality development has been established. Their significance as a research focus has been cited. The disengagement and activity theories of aging and relevant research studies have been presented.

The following section introduces Frankl's (1965) concept of purpose in life and its importance to the study of adult life-stages.

7. Purpose in Life

In the survey of literature on adult development, themes of meaninglessness and alienation frequently reoccur. This contrasts with the more common view of adulthood as characterized by continuity and stability. In research studies adults reported varying levels of stress, anxiety, meaninglessness, and alienation during periods of transition, turning points and adjustments which they faced at different stages in their life-cycles. Some researchers suggest that adulthood is a time of change, conflict and crisis similar in many ways to adolescence (Bardwick, 1972; Brim, 1976; Levinson, 1977, 1978; Lowenthal & Weiss, 1976). Therefore, meaninglessness and alienation is of prime concern in the consideration of adult personality development.

Purpose in life - is defined as a central sense of purpose or meaning to life. In this view the ego organizes action into one coherent whole so that living has a meaning, a direction, and a central purpose (Cole, 1970). Thus, a relatedness exists between the individual and his world. In contrast, to have no purpose in life gives rise to varying degrees of anxiety, stress, meaninglessness, powerlessness, and alienation.

Man is a social being and states of meaninglessness and alienation prevent his social and psychological development. Schachtel (1970) states alienation signifies separation or distance between two or more entities. This distancing and inhibiting nature of these "negative" states of being may impede adults from achieving optimal psychological

development.

Other theorists and researchers note the positive functions of the states of meaninglessness and alienation without examining their positive constructive forces (Fromm-Reichmann, 1959). These "negative" states may act as motivators and are positive signs of developmental process (Dabrowski, 1972; Frankl, 1967).

This section examines some of the major theoretical perspectives of meaninglessness and alienation as it pertains to adult development and describes recent research studies pertinent to these concepts.

Related Theories

(a) Victor Frankl

Frankl's (1963) existential view proposes that the search for meaning in one's life is the primary motivating force in man and is necessary to become a fully functioning individual. Frankl's theory was based on experiences in German concentration camps and Nietzsche's philosophy that whoever has a reason for living will live and live more fully. Only to the extent that man finds meaning in his environment does he fulfill himself and thereby become self-actualized or transcendant. A further characteristic of human existence in Frankl's view is the ability to transcend one's particular time and place. He states "...only to the extent that man fulfills a meaning in the world does he fulfill himself " (Frankl, 1963). If one's search for meaning is frustrated then the result is an "existential vacuum" manifested

as feelings of meaninglessness, boredom and powerlessness. Frankl describes meaninglessness as a form of nihilism which is the philosophic view that being has no meaning. The will to seek a purpose in life is central to healthy psychological functioning and the feelings of emptiness and anxiety arising from these emotions act as motivators to one's developmental processes (Frankl, 1967).

(b) Rollo May

May (1960) suggests the central need of an individual is to establish his own identity. He views man as a biosocial being who, through his relatedness to others, establishes his own identity, experiences feelings of "being a self" and thus is able to fulfill his own potential. May suggests that modern man is repressing the ontological sense and awareness of being, resulting in feelings of vagueness, hollowness, loneliness, emptiness, and anxiety. These states of meaninglessness and alienation leave the individual powerless to effectively act and make decisions which in time, turns into pathological feelings of morbidity and despair. May (1960) suggests the state of normal anxiety is necessary for individual development in order to grow and take on deeper and more universal values.

(c) Frieda Fromm-Reichmann

Fromm-Reichmann (1959) writes that a state of self-realization is achieved through an individual's use of his talents and skills to one's own satisfaction. She proposes that the lack of freedom for

self-realization and the feelings of stagnation and meaninglessness that accompany it, seem to be at the root of adults' states of anxiety and mental disturbances. A central cause of anxiety today, according to Fromm-Reichmann, is the fear of helplessness, and meaninglessness.

(d) Karen Horney

Neo-Freudian psychologist Horney (1939) states that feelings of alienation, hostility, fear and diminished self-concept ultimately result in neurotic personality development. Factors leading to alienation and feelings of meaninglessness according to Horney, are inabilities to meet needs and competitive urges that constitute neurotic conflicts. Horney views the major force in man as the need for safety, security and freedom from fear and threat. Basic anxiety develops from a child's relationship with his parents. The child develops one of three strategies for dealing with anxiety: moving toward, moving against, and moving away from other individuals (Horney, 1939). In moving toward people an individual expresses helplessness and seeks affection through belonging and depending on others. In moving against, the individual expresses hostility and utilizes techniques of competition to gain power or success. Lastly, some individual move away and withdraw and adopt the defenses of detachment and isolation and they avoid social interactions, seeking meaning and satisfaction in their own private and inner world and thus become truly alienated.

The previously cited psychologists all emphasize the impact of

technology and social change on individuals and the tendency to dehumanize man resulting in states of meaninglessness and alienation. Horney (1939) and Fromm (1947) stress competitiveness at personal and social levels of functioning, leading to emotional alienation. Frankl (1963) and May (1960) emphasize society's stress on conformity and the tendency to move toward an adjustment model of conforming behavior without purposeful goals. Maslow (1968) and Fromm-Reichmann (1959) also underline the need to be committed to personal goals.

8. Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension (CA) is defined as the degree of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons (McCroskey, 1977). The individual with high CA is described as a "reticent" individual whose anxiety about participating in oral speech outweighs one's projection of gain from the situation (Phillips, 1968).

The importance of effective oral communication has been emphasized by social science researchers and those working with adults in helping and professional capacities such as teachers, employers, employment counselors, family and marriage counselors. Speech has a forceful impact on many aspects of adult life including vocational, social, academic, economic, political, and personal areas. Because of this strong effect of speech proficiency on adult life-cycle choices, communication apprehension was chosen as an anxiety measure for the purpose of this study.

Society is becoming more technologized in various aspects of communication and correspondingly relationships between speech proficiency, self-concept and self-esteem are becoming increasingly important. These relationships may appear self-evident; however, further examination of these associations may be important considerations as research findings are contradictory. Low self-esteem and high CA subjects are frequently described in research findings as possessing similar personality characteristics (Jourard, 1971). Other studies have not found a positive relationship between speech skills and self-concept (Brooks & Platz, 1968, Miyamoto, Crowell & Kratcher, 1956).

Increasing numbers of adults are contemplating mid-life career changes and re-entering post-secondary educational systems in which communication skills are necessary for success and personal achievement. An awareness of these relationships appears relevant and they have implications for educators, counselors and clients themselves. Research findings are important in order to determine methods of helping clients cope with, or reduce their levels of CA. The most frequently used method of reducing CA is training and practice in public speaking groups. This method may be effective for low or moderate CA clients; however, for those with high CA, experiences in public speaking groups may be traumatic and have no carry-over effect. Undoubtedly some CA clients will be too inhibited to participate in groups. Systematic desensitization (Goss, Thompson & Olds, 1977), relaxation induced by biofeedback (Fenton, Hopf & Beck, 1975), and reality therapy (Phillips

& Metzger, 1973) have been found to be effective in high CA clients. If the relationship between CA and self-esteem is determined across age groups, counselors might want to examine methods of raising levels of self-esteem as an alternate or additional way of reducing CA and increasing communication effectiveness.

However, the assumption must not be made that every one with high CA would prefer a lower CA level. "Highly verbal people frequently find themselves in difficulties as a result of their communication that other people are most unlikely to experience" (McCroskey, 1975).

The majority of studies linking CA and self-esteem used data from college students and thus there is a need for further research across adult age groups. Undoubtedly the inability to communicate effectively can result in traumatic experience and seriously limits personal achievement. The importance of speech proficiency is stressed by Oliver (1971) when he stated:

> It is better to be able to take an effective part in the general flow of social talk than it is to proceed through life mumbling, or awkwardly silent, or fumbling in embarrassment to try to find ways of saying what you think. Everyday observation indicates that clumsiness and inefficiency in speaking are severe personal handicaps.

The importance of communication skills to successful fulfilment of adult-roles, specifically careers and occupations, are emphasized by some researchers (Brim, 1968; Hamachuk, 1971; Priess, 1968). McCroskey (1975) and Bingham (1975) determined that individuals who are reticent to verbally interact or engage in public speaking will not

choose occupations that require these skills. Similarly, job satisfaction has been negatively correlated with high levels of CA. Zelko (1965) states that potential employers feel that speech proficiency and effective communication skills are the most important qualities a potential employee can possess.

Research findings have examined the relationship of CA and a variety of other personality traits (McCroskey, 1971). As previously noted, results are somewhat contradictory. No significant relationships were found between CA and intelligence, sophistication, self-sufficiency or sensitivity (Rosenfield & Plax, 1976). Positive correlations were found between CA and anxiety (McCroskey, Daly & Sorenson, 1976) and CA and introversion (Huntley, 1969). Negative correlations were found between CA and self-esteem (McCroskey, Daly, Richmond & Falcione, 1977; Snavely & Sullivan, 1976) and CA and innovativeness or willingness to accept change (Witteman, 1976).

Considerable research has been conducted to determine the various correlates of self-esteem. Jourard (1971) found that individuals with high self-esteem engaged in higher frequencies of self-disclosing behavior. Related to this are the relatively consistent findings that negative self-perceptions were associated with neurotic and maladjusted behaviors (Block & Thomas, 1955; Hillson & Worchel, 1957; Leary, 1957). McCroskey & Daly (1975) found that high levels of CA were associated with negative interpersonal perceptions which in turn generated negative expectations, both in one's self and in others, which

adversely affected future successes in academic and business careers.

Other research findings contradict the previously cited positive relationship between effective communication skills and self-concept and self-esteem. Brooks & Platz (1968) studied the results of speech training on student self-concept. They concluded that while 75 percent of the students did experience higher levels of self-concept, 25 percent demonstrated a change to lower levels of self-concept. Miyamoto, Crowell & Kratcher (1956) found that students who increased their level of communication skills through participation in speech courses did not significantly differ from students enrolled in first year psychology courses.

The contradictory nature of research findings and the importance of effective communication across all age groups indicates that further research into the relationship of speech proficiency and self-concept and self-esteem is warranted.

Summary

This chapter extensively dealt with the two major adult developmental themes relevant to the present investigation. Firstly, theories of personality, life-stages and developmental tasks most pertinent to adult-age groups were reviewed. Continuity and change in personality structure, self-concept, self-identity and social-roles over adult ages were examined. The second theme, Frankl's concept of purpose in life as the reflection of identity resolution, was outlined.

A subsidiary theme, the relationship of self-esteem to oral communication, was also explored. The general theoretical framework, adult developmental issues and basic rationale of the following study has been presented.

As previously cited, the psychological literature and research has traditionally focused on personality development in childhood, adolescence, and more recently, on the elderly. A search of the literature revealed that although there is a growing interest in adult developmental issues, the majority of studies to date do not focus on young adulthood and middle-aged groups.

Research findings were equivocal and inconclusive. The need for the following investigation arose from such ambiguities. The basic questions and hypotheses are derived in accordance with the literature review of adult development, purpose in life and communication apprehension.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD, RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND HYPOTHESES

The Problem

This study attempted to investigate age-related differences in personality characteristics. The reflection of identity resolution through the achievement of a purpose in life was also examined. Since self-esteem has been shown to have a significant relationship to speech proficiency, a second level of investigation was executed. This was the measurement of self-esteem through a measure of oral communication anxiety. Previously cited literature in Chapter 2 noted relatively few research investigations of personality factors using young and middle-aged adult groups and research findings were inconsistent and contradictory. This study was designed as a consequence of these problems and a number of interrelated research questions and hypotheses were generated.

The design of this study involved the comparison of various adult aged groups on personality characteristics. A population of adults willing to participate in this study and complete standardized questionnaires was to be found in order to investigate age-related differences in personality traits, degree of purpose in life and speech anxiety. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the method of sample selection, the research instruments employed and to present the procedures used in the present investigation. The research

questions, hypotheses and limitations of the study are also included in this chapter.

The Sample

The sampling procedure was designed to ensure random selection to represent, as closely as possible, the target population (Ferguson, 1971). The population in this study was defined as individuals 15 years of age and over who were residents of metropolitan Edmonton, living in non-institutional households. The lower limit for the youngest age group was set at 15 years of age (range 15-19 years). Alberta Provincial law defines adult status as 16 years of age or older. To the extent that chronological age may be one indicator of adult status, the mid-point age of 17 years for this youngest age category was selected for this study. The inclusion of young and old groups allowed comparisons to be made across a wide range of ages.

The adult age groups were designated according to Statistics Canada (1976) population age categories. These age categories allowed comparisons between a wide range of ages, and flexibility so that various age groupings could be compared to some of the adult development stage and task literature (Havighurst, 1976; Peck, 1968; Valliant, 1972) as shown in Figure 2. As a result of sampling procedure, the eight age groups emerged. The eight age groups used in this study were:

Group 1, 15-19 years (mid-point 17, $\bar{x}$ = 18.7);

Group 2, 20-24 years (mid-point 22, $\bar{x}$ = 21.8);

Group 3, 25-29 years (mid-point 27, $\bar{x}$ = 27.1);

Group 4, 30-34 years (mid-point 32, $\bar{x}$ = 32.8);

Group 5, 35-39 years (mid-point 37, $\bar{x}$ = 36.6);

Group 6, 40-44 years (mid-point 42, $\bar{x}$ = 40.4);

Group 7, 45-49 years (mid-point 47, $\bar{x}$ = 46.8);

Group 8, 50-54 years (mid-point 52, $\bar{x}$ = 51.8).

Subsequently the subjects were divided into two groups on the basis of sex; male (n = 44) and female (n = 57).

The sample was selected systematically from the City of Edmonton Telephone Directory using a random sampling computer program designed by the Population Research Laboratory, Department of Sociology, University of Alberta. The households, from which the respondents were selected, were chosen at fixed intervals from a random starting point. Two hundred and fifty households were selected and an additional one hundred households drawn to substitute for sample listings which included commercial establishments, institutions, inaccurate listings, and respondents that could not be contacted. Demographic data regarding subject's age, marital status, and highest level of education attained, was also collected.

Sampling Procedures

Initial contact with the respondents selected was by a letter (Appendix B) which outlined the study and advised them that an interviewer would call on them to elicit their participation and answer any questions they might have. The confidential nature of the study

and the importance of research on adult developmental issues was emphasized by the interviewer. The letter was followed up by a telephone call requesting cooperation in completing the study and to determine an appropriate interview date and time. The first telephone contacts were unsuccessful as potential subjects refused to participate in the study. The researcher decided to suspend this particular interview technique. Respondents were then personally contacted in their residences. The interviewer outlined the study and attempted to enlist their cooperation. This second method was much more successful and this method was used throughout the study. An overall sample of two hundred and fifty households was selected, which included 9% of the listings substituted from the alternate sample listing. The total number of subjects participating in this study was 101 ($n = 101$).

Within the selected households all persons 15 years old and over willing to participate in the study were surveyed. A maximum of three respondents from any of the households was obtained ($\bar{X} = 1.4$). Demographic data for each subject was collected including age, sex, marital status, and highest level of education attained. Each subject was given instructions for completing the three research instruments in the study which consisted of The Tennessee Self Concept Scale, The Purpose in Life Test and The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension. They were asked to record their answers for each of the self-report questionnaires on the optically scored answer sheet provided.

Mail back survey techniques (Secretary of State, 1978) were employed and respondents were left envelopes stamped and addressed to the researcher to facilitate questionnaire retrieval. Subjects were advised that a copy of the study would be available to them at the completion of the research.

If the questionnaires were not returned to the researchers after a two-week duration, a follow up by telephone was made. A limit of four telephone calls was set as a reasonable research effort. In some instances pick-up in person was requested for the subject's convenience, and in other instances, to discuss some of their concerns arising from the completion of the questionnaires with regard to issues concerning the adult developmental perspective.

Sample Description

The sample was composed of 101 subjects, in eight age groups, between the ages of 15-54 years. The subjects aged 55 years or over were dropped from the study because of the small number of responses obtained (n = 8). This sample was randomly selected from the total population of metropolitan Edmonton which was 411,365 people (Census, 1976). Table 1 shows the total number of subjects and the number of females and males in each category. The percentage of subjects in each age group is also shown for the sample.

The number of subjects in each age category was unequal as shown in Table 1, indicating differences in response rates in the

TABLE 1

SAMPLE COMPOSITION

Group	Age	Mid-point	Freq.	Freq. Males	Freq. Females	% Sample	% of Population*
1	15-19	17	11	8	3	10.1	14.3
2	20-24	22	28	10	18	30.2	15.8
3	25-29	27	20	12	8	20.2	13.1
4	30-34	32	17	3	14	15.6	9.8
5	35-39	37	10	6	4	10.1	7.9
6	40-44	42	6	1	5	5.5	7.5
7	45-49	47	5	3	2	4.6	7.1
8	50-54	52	4	1	3	3.7	6.4
Total			101	44	57	100%	

Source: Age Distribution of the population (1976)
Canada Year Book, 1978-79

*Refers to population of Edmonton (Census, 1976).

sample. Group 2 (aged 20-24), group 3 (aged 25-29) and group 4 (aged 30-34) had the highest participation rates and accounted for 66% of the total sample. The three oldest age groups, group 6 (aged 40-44), group 7 (aged 45-49) and group 8 (aged 50-54) had the lowest proportional representation in the sample with 13.8% falling into these age categories. Group 1 (aged 15-19) and group 5 (aged 35-39) comprised the remaining 20.2% of the total sample.

The higher rates of participation for the young adult and middle-aged groups, undoubtedly reflected their greater interest and willingness to participate in this study. A lack of interest in the study, because they felt it was not directly applicable to them, was the most often cited reason for the older aged respondents refusing to participate. The strong interest, expressed in the need for personal relevance, parallels Cumming and Henry's (1961) disengagement theory with the focus on individual's inner-world over the aging process. Later research (Bischof, 1976) applied this theory to middle-age and mid-forties groups. Disengagement theory appears to have relevance to the sample in this study, in that the three oldest aged groups had the smallest number of subjects and the 55 year and over groups were dropped from the study because of their low response rate.

The marital status of the subjects was categorized in four ways: married, single, divorced, and other. The majority of the sample was married (50.5%) or single (39.6%) as shown in Figure 3. A relatively smaller proportion of the sample surveyed reported their marital status

FIGURE 3

MARITAL STATUS OF TOTAL SAMPLE AND OF POPULATION OF EDMONTON*

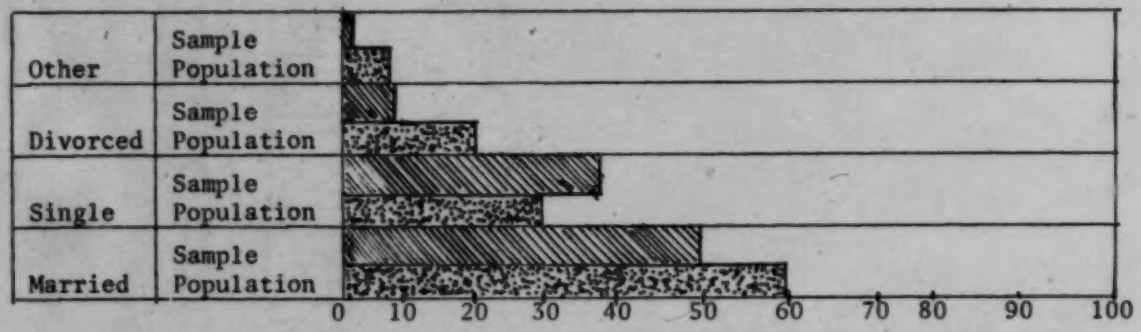
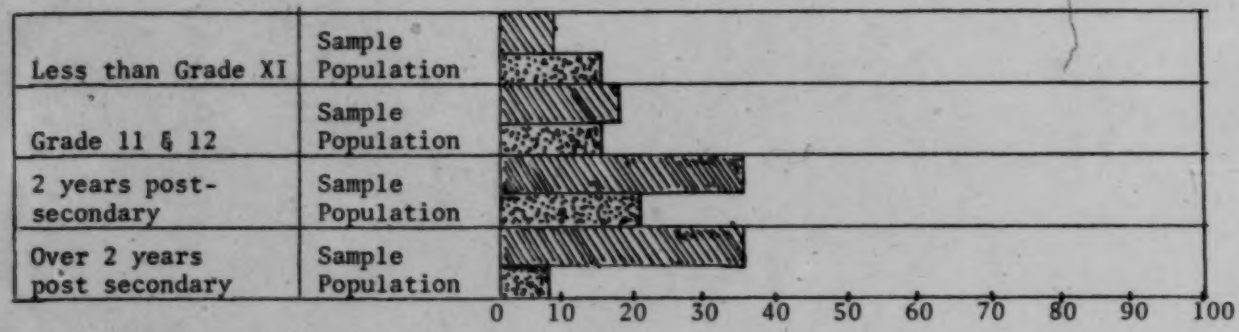


FIGURE 4

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF TOTAL SAMPLE AND OF POPULATION OF EDMONTON*



* Refers to total population of Edmonton, 15 years of age and over (Census, 1976).

as divorced (8.9%) or other (1%), which included widowed and separated subjects. The number of respondents who were married or single participating in this study was significantly greater than their proportional representation in the target population.

The researcher notes that when individuals describing themselves as divorced or separated were approached to complete the questionnaires, a relatively large number of refusals were received. These refusals were on several occasions accompanied by statements such as: "I don't want anyone prying into my life" and in the case of single parents, "I don't have time to complete the questionnaires." The low response rate for divorced or separated individuals was the result of the relatively large number of refusals received from these two marital status groups and some of their attitudes toward surveys of this nature.

The level of education attained by subjects was high (Figure 4), relative to the total metropolitan population educational figures (Census, 1976). The majority of the subjects had completed some post-secondary education (69.4%) with 34.7% completing 2 years post-secondary studies and 34.2%, 3 years or more. A lesser proportion of subjects had completed grade 11 and 12 (22.7%) with (7.9%) completing less than grade 11, as shown in Figure 4. The significantly lower response rate for persons who had completed less than grade 11 education, in comparison with their number in the total population, demonstrated their lower degree of interest in this study in comparison with subjects who had completed post-secondary educational levels.

In summary, the sample indicated there were strong differences in response rates across the various age groups, educational levels and categories of marital status. Although the study was randomly designed, the number of subjects in each age category did not approximate the proportion represented in the total population. Similarly, the number of married and single subjects was higher, relative to other marital categories and the level of education completed was higher than in the target population. The difference in demographic variables between the sample and the population must be taken into account in any discussion of the results of this study. Researchers cited the difficulty in securing representative samples for adult-aged groups (Schaie, 1976; Neugarten, 1968). This research problem is underscored in the present study.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were as follows: The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS), The Purpose in Life Test (PIL), and The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA). For the measure of personality characteristics, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used while the Purpose in Life Test and the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension were used to measure the degree of meaning and oral communication anxiety, respectively.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS)

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was constructed by Fitts (1965)

and is designed to measure favorable or unfavorable self-concept. This scale is a self-administered, objective Likert-type instrument which gives a subscore for three internal and five external dimensions of self-concept as well as a total positive score reflecting the overall level of self-esteem. The three internal factors are: identity, self-satisfaction, and behavior. The five external factors are: physical, moral-ethical, personal, family, and social. The TSCS consists of 100 items on which responses are elicited on a 1 to 5 point scale ranging from "completely true" to "completely false." The TSCS has been widely used in research, measuring self-perceptions.

The TSCS was normed from a sample of 626 males and females aged 12-68 years of various races, intelligence, and socio-economic groups. Although this norming sample does not accurately represent the variables in the total population, Fitts (1965) stated that samples from other populations did not appreciably differ from the norm. Bentler's (1977) review in Buros' Mental Measurement Yearbook stated "it will suffice for many practical purposes." This test was chosen as it is self-administered, applicable to a wide range of subjects, and includes many of the personality dimensions discussed in the previous literature review and appears to be a reasonable measure of self-perception.

There are two methods for scoring the TSCS; the counseling form and the clinical form. The counseling form was used as it provides the necessary data for this study.

Test-retest reliability, while varying on some of the subscores,

is in the high .80's which is sufficiently large to allow research confidence in the test. No other type of reliability is reported for the TSCS.

Several scores on the scale have relatively high correlations with other personality tests. For example, correlations with some of the MMPI scales are in the .50's and .60's, and the Taylor Anxiety Scale correlates -.70 with the total positive score on the TSCS. No information is given on the internal consistency of the scale or any of the subscales. However, Bentler in Buros (1977) noted the internal consistency coefficients would most probably be high.

Purpose in Life Scale

The Purpose in Life Test (PIL) is a logically-keyed attitude scale consisting of three sections and having no time limits. It was developed as a measure of Viktor E. Frankl's (1963) concept of "existential vacuum," that is, a failure to find a meaning and purpose in life. This state is characterized by emptiness, with boredom as its chief manifestation. The PIL is thus an attempt to add a quantitative dimension to an important philosophical and therapeutic construct.

The PIL has three parts. Part A consists of 20 items which are rated on a seven-point Likert Scale with position 4 on this scale as neutral. Different and descriptive terms are presented as anchors for points 1 to 7. Part B consists of 13 sentence completion items, while Part C requires that the respondent write a paragraph about personal

aims, ambitions, goals in life, and the progress made so far in his/her achievement. Part A consists of 20 items, objectively rated and provides sufficient information for this study.

Reliability on the basis of reported odd-even (split-half) methods seems satisfactory (Buros, 1977). This is in the order of .90 and .92 found in two separate studies. No other type of reliability was reported. With regard to the validity of the PIL, the construct validity of .38 was reported between PIL scores and the rating of therapists while a correlation of .47 was found between the PIL and the ratings of parishioners by ministers. Further, the test authors present extensive construct validity data in the form of means for various patient and normal groups. Construct validity was also established with a wide variety of other scales such as the MMPI and the 16 PF (Buros, 1977).

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA)

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension is a 20-item Likert-type scale that is objectively scored and is not timed. The scores on this test range from 20 (low apprehension) to 100 (high apprehension). The PRCA was developed by McCroskey (1970) and test items specifically relate to fear or anxiety about communication. Terms descriptive of feelings about communication with other people, are measured on a 1 to 5 point scale. This scale was first reported by McCroskey (1970) and has been used in over 50 studies since that

time. This instrument consistently yields estimated reliability ranging from .92 to .95. A summary of the PRCA research provided support for its validity as a measure of the oral trait, communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1975). The picture of the person with high levels of communication apprehension emerged as an alienated introverted individual who had a low level of self-esteem, was resistant to change, and lacking in emotional maturity. Individuals reporting low levels of communication apprehension reported higher degrees of social adjustment and self-esteem and were open to change. Reports of internal reliability of this instrument all exceeded .90 (McCroskey, 1970). Estimated reliability ranged from .92 to .95 across a wide range of subjects (McCroskey, Richmond, Daly & Falcione, 1977). The Lustig Verbal Reticence Scale (1974) and the Phillips-Erickson Reticence Scale (1976) were found to correlate with the PRCA at .69. The association between these instruments suggests concurrent validity for these measures of communication apprehension. There was no information on the validity and reliability of the PRCA in any of the mental measurement literature.

The psychometric data available on all three instruments used in this study indicates these tests satisfactorily meet test construction standards. The TSCS and PIL have been vigorously tested and the PRCA less so. However, the tests all are consistent with their theoretical constructs and this provides adequate justification for the use of these three instruments in this study.

Research Questions, Definitions and Hypotheses

The present investigation is concerned with age-related differences in personality characteristics, the degree of achievement of purpose in life and speech anxiety in adult age subjects. The following research questions, three major hypotheses and seven subsidiary hypotheses have been formulated and presented for analysis.

Question 1. Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS)

Are the self-perceptions of adults as defined by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale consistent across adult age groups and life-stages, as elucidated by developmental stage theorists (Havighurst, 1976; Levinson, 1977; Peck, 1968)? Are there differing personality dimensions represented in various age groups?

Definitions

The total positive score reflects the overall level of self-esteem and is the most important single score on the counseling form of the TSCS. Individuals with high scores tend to like themselves and feel that they have worth and value and have confidence in themselves. In contrast, individuals with low total positive scores have doubts as to their own worth, and view themselves as undesirable, often feeling anxious, depressed and unhappy with low levels of self-confidence (Fitts, 1965). The subscales on the TSCS consist of internal and external self-dimensions. The internal dimensions are: identity, how

one sees oneself, self-satisfaction, how one feels about the self one perceives, and behavioral self, the individual's perception of one's own behavior.

The external subscale dimensions on the TSCS are: physical self, one's health and view of one's physical appearance; moral ethical self, the individual's feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person and a sense of moral worth as a "good or "bad" person; personal self, reflects the individual's sense of worth and feelings of adequacy apart from others; family self, reflects one's feelings of value, worth and adequacy as a family member; and social self, is one's view of oneself as perceived by others.

Rationale

Research findings concerning age-related personality change were contradictory and inconclusive. One point of view emphasized stability and continuity over the life-cycle (Byrne, 1966; Neugarten, 1968; Woodruff & Birren, 1972), and other researchers proposed changes in personality (Greenleigh, 1974; Lowenthal & Weiss, 1976; Mortimer & Simmons, 1978; Schaie & Gribbon, 1975). Other literature suggested there was more than one pattern of change over the adult life-cycle (Costa & McCrae, 1976). Researchers also stressed the importance of "sex role identity" in adult personality change (Bardwick, 1972; Fasteau, 1974; Neugarten, 1968). Again contradictory findings emerged, with some research evidence suggesting that the aging process

appeared to have a greater impact on adult women than men (Lyell, 1973; Monge, 1975), while other studies indicated the opposite opinion (Chew, 1977; Greenleigh, 1974; Levinson, 1977). There is a need for further research aimed at providing more knowledge about these issues. Consequently, hypotheses relating to Question 1 were generated.

Hypothesis 1.1. There is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the total positive scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

Hypothesis 1.2. There is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the specific identity subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Contept Scale.

Hypothesis 1.3. There is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on seven subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale which include: self-satisfaction, behaviour, moral ethical, social, family, physical and personal selves.

Hypothesis 1.4. There is no statistically significant difference between females and males on the total positive score and subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

Question 2. Purpose in Life Test (PIL)

Does the degree to which adults find a meaning or life goal as measured by the Purpose in Life Test (Frankl, 1963) differ across adult age groups?

Definition

Purpose in life is defined as a central sense or purpose or

meaning in life. The ego organizes one's actions into a coherent whole in order that living has a meaning and a central direction (Cole, 1970).

Rationale

The literature, previously cited, reported that adults experienced varying levels of stress, anxiety, meaninglessness and alienation during periods of transition and adjustment encountered at various stages in their life-cycles (Bardwick, 1973; Brim, 1976; Levinson, 1976; Lowenthal & Weiss, 1976). The positive relationship between a purpose in life and self-esteem was suggested by psychological theorists (Fromm, 1955; Horney, 1939; Maslow, 1954; May, 1960). Thus, the examination of levels of purpose in life is of prime concern in the consideration of adult personality change.

Hypothesis 2.1. There is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the mean Purpose in Life scores.

Hypothesis 2.2. There is no statistically significant difference between males and females on the mean Purpose in Life scores.

Hypothesis 2.3. There is no statistically significant positive relationship between the Purpose in Life mean score and the total positive mean scores and the nine subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

Question 3. Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA)

Does the degree of oral communication anxiety differ across adult

age groups? Are there differences between the behavioral measure of speech anxiety and level of self-esteem?

Definition

Communication apprehension is defined as one's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with others (McCroskey, 1977).

Rationale

Self-esteem has been shown by some researchers to have a significant impact on adult choices across the life-cycle (Herr & Cramer, 1979). Therefore, a second level of investigation, the measure of self-esteem through measurement of oral communication anxiety, was explored in this study. Low self-esteem and high communication apprehension subjects were frequently described in research findings as having similar personality characteristics (Jourard, 1971). The majority of studies linking speech anxiety and self-esteem have used college and university students and, therefore, this study investigated this relationship across the eight adult age groups.

Hypothesis 3.1. There is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the mean Personal Report of Communication Apprehension scores.

Hypothesis 3.2. There is no statistically significant difference between males and females on the mean Personal Report of Communication Apprehension scores.

Hypothesis 3.3. There is no statistically positive relationship among the mean scores of the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension, the total positive mean score and the identity subscale on the TSCS.

Treatment of the Data

The data gathered from the three self-report questionnaires, TSCS, PIL, and PRCA, were optically scored by the Department of Computing Services at the University of Alberta. The SCALSCOR program was used to develop one composite score for each subject from the PIL and CA questionnaires. The scoring of the test items for the TSCS was executed by means of the CPSCOR program devised for scoring and computing scales on this test.

In this study, the following statistical analyses, written at the Department of Educational Research Services (DERS), University of Alberta, were executed:

1. Descriptive statistics, computer program Desto 2.
2. One-way analyses of variance, ANCV-15, was utilized for Hypotheses 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 3.1, and 3.3.
3. Two-way analyses of variance, ANCV-25, was used.
4. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Program, Desto 2, was used for Hypotheses 2.3 and 3.3.

In addition to the computer analysis of the data, Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation was computed for the scores from the

three test instruments which were previously scored by means of the CPSCOR program. This additional statistical analysis was carried out to further explore the relationship between age groups and scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Purpose in Life Scale and the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The major purpose of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference among eight adult-age groups on (a) self-concept, as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, (b) degree of purpose found in life, and (c) level of speech anxiety. The relationship of self-esteem and identity to the level of meaning in life and communication anxiety were also examined. Further analysis was carried out on the data obtained from the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the original eight age groups were combined into four broad age groupings. This investigation also explored the relationship between self-concept to purpose in life and communication anxiety.

This chapter presents descriptive statistics outlining each of the groups and the results of the data analysis for each hypothesis. The chapter ends with a summary of the findings.

Descriptive Statistics

The first research question posed in Chapters 1 and 3 of this study was: Are the self-perceptions of adults, as defined by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, consistent across adult age groups and life-stages. The mean group subscores were computed to determine if

there were differences among groups on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale Scores. Table 2 shows the mean scores for each of the eight age groups of this study. Research question 2 asked: Does the degree to which adults find a meaning in life, as measured by the Purpose in Life Test, differ across age groups? Finally, research question 3 asked: Does the degree of oral communication anxiety differ across adult age groups, as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Anxiety? The total mean scores for the Purpose in Life Scale and the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension for each group are also given in Table 2. All three of the tests were scored on a Likert type scale, so that a high score reflected a high level of self-esteem, purpose in life, or speech anxiety.

The total positive score on The Tennessee Self Concept Scale is an overall measure of self-esteem, and is generally regarded as the most important score on the test (Fitts, 1975). An examination of Table 2 revealed that there is a tendency for the older age groups to have higher mean total positive scores than the younger groups. The total positive mean score achieved by group 8, the oldest age category was 402.25 as compared to 339.55 for group 1, the youngest age group. Similarly, the mean score for group 7 was 361.80 and 338.39 for group 2. While the relationship was not consistently linear, the data suggested an increase in self-esteem for older aged groups.

With regard to subscales of The Tennessee Self Concept Scale shown in Table 2, the data revealed a trend toward steady linear in-

TABLE 2

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SCORES ON THE TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

VARIABLE	Group 1 (n=1)		Group 2 (n=33)		Group 3 (n=22)		Group 4 (n=17)		Group 5 (n=17)		Group 6 (n=6)		Group 7 (n=5)		Group 8 (n=4)	
TSCS	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D	X	S.D
Total Positive Score	339.55	38.00	338.39	32.50	344.73	35.14	369.94	31.00	350.09	25.43	375.33	30.34	36.180	33.55	402.24	12.20
Identity	121.55	11.80	120.64	12.72	122.73	11.49	131.76	7.99	124.00	7.58	128.67	10.46	130.00	6.89	138.25	2.36
Self Satisfaction	106.55	16.32	107.21	16.50	109.05	14.60	117.76	14.69	115.00	12.47	111.33	16.43	111.80	13.76	134.50	2.58
Behavior	11.45	13.98	110.55	11.62	112.95	13.54	120.41	10.66	111.09	11.04	117.33	10.25	120.00	13.58	129.50	8.27
Physical Self	69.45	5.68	65.70	8.57	67.05	8.84	73.24	8.56	68.91	6.89	72.17	6.27	68.20	10.43	78.75	5.05
Moral-Ethical	68.18	8.89	69.18	6.27	71.86	10.26	74.94	6.43	71.82	6.35	73.67	8.21	75.20	7.92	80.50	4.04
Personal	66.63	10.17	65.39	8.30	66.73	8.64	59.82	7.79	69.27	5.72	65.83	6.74	68.80	8.58	77.75	5.74
Social	66.64	10.10	67.85	7.83	67.41	8.69	74.88	6.86	68.73	6.37	7.183	9.43	74.00	5.43	82.00	5.42
Family	68.64	10.30	70.27	8.91	71.68	8.50	77.06	6.83	7.136	7.49	73.83	4.71	75.60	8.50	83.25	2.5
Purpose in Life Scale	18.72	4.90	18.66	6.38	20.13	7.07	15.88	3.81	14.27	3.32	19.00	3.52	19.79	2.39	16.25	2.5
Communication Apprehension Scale	43.90	10.33	46.03	14.19	45.54	12.64	37.52	8.68	36.45	9.96	49.00	9.42	45.79	3.70	36.25	8.85

creases on subscales as the groups increased in age. Mean identity scores achieved by group 8 was 138.25 compared to 121.55 for group 1. Mean family, social and self-satisfaction scores increased almost consistently as the age of the group increased. This suggests positive changes in self-perceptions of identity, family, social and self-satisfaction as the age of the subject increased. While there were mean differences among the groups concerning behavior, moral-ethical, physical and personal subscales, there was no consistent tendency for these four subscales to increase as a function of aging.

One major exception to the earlier stated trends was found for group 4 (30-34 years) which consistently showed substantial positive increases on mean scores on nine Tennessee Self Concept subscales over group 3 (25-29 years) which included: total positive score, identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, physical, moral-ethical, personal, social and family. In contrast, the response elevation for group 4 was followed by a general marked decline for group 5 (35-39 years) on these subscales with one exception, the moral-ethical subscale. These discrepancies are discussed in Chapter 5 but it should be noted that the age group 30-34 years falls within the age range postulated by developmental task theorists as the period when parenting and family concerns are at their peak (Havighurst, 1973; Gould, 1975; Levinson, 1977).

Table 2 lists the mean scores for each age group on the degree to which adults find meaning in life, as measured by the Purpose in

Life scale. Group 3 had the highest mean score (20.13) while group 5 had the lowest mean score (14.27). However, from an examination of the data, no clear trends emerged suggesting that there was no consistent pattern of differences found on level of meaning in life achieved across adult ages in this study.

The third major research question asked if the degree of oral communication anxiety differed across adult age groups? The mean scores for each age group are shown in Table 2. Group 6 showed the highest mean score (49.00) while group 5 and group 8 achieved the lowest mean scores of 36.45 and 36.25 respectively. Again, an examination of the data indicated no trends were apparent, suggesting that there was no consistent difference on the degree of speech anxiety among age groups in this investigation.

A comparison of variability on the responses given for the total positive scores showed group 8, the oldest subjects' responses were the least variable (S.D.=12.20), with group 1, the youngest subjects, showing the greatest degree of variability (S.D.=38.00). Similarly, patterns of variation were consistent for subscales of identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, personal, social and family selves. These results indicate the responses from subjects aged 15 to 19 years differed widely on these self-perceptions while the subjects aged 50 to 54 were more homogenous in their responses.

The means and standard deviations of the total positive scores by marital status is shown in Table 3. The "other" category was dropped,

TABLE 3

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE TOTAL

POSITIVE SCORES BY MARITAL STATUS

Variable	Education		
	Married $\bar{X}$ S.D. (n=51)	Single $\bar{X}$ S.D. (n=40)	Divorced $\bar{X}$ S.D. (n=9)
Total Positive Score	359.48 34.24	337.84 35.18	352.00 22.55

(Other = 1)

n = 101

for analysis as this category included only one subject. T-tests were used to determine if pairs of means of these scores differed significantly for the three categories of educational level attained by the subjects. The results indicated there were no significant differences between scores of married and divorced subjects and single and divorced subjects. The obtained T-score for married and single subjects was significant indicating that these samples were drawn from two different populations.

Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations of the total positive scores by educational level attained by the subjects. T-tests were used to determine if there were significant differences between pairs of means of the scores for each group and no significant differences were found.

Statistical Analysis

Tests for homogeneity of variance (one-way classification) developed by the Department of Educational Research Services (DERS), University of Alberta, were carried out by computer analysis to determine whether or not the variances of the scores obtained on the three test instruments by the various age groups were significantly different from each other. Significant F-scores were identified and tested using the Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means to determine statistically significant differences between the means of age groups. Table 5 summarizes the results of this data analysis. Analysis of

TABLE 4

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE TOTAL

POSITIVE SCORES BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS

Variable	Education							
	Less than Grade 11 (n=8)		Grade 11 or 12 completed (n=23)		2 years post-secondary (n=33)		3 years + post-secondary (n=35)	
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Total positive score	351.19	36.63	345.22	28.06	350.59	33.90	352.59	37.86

n = 101

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES AMONG EIGHT AND FOUR AGE GROUPS ON THE TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE, PURPOSE IN LIFE SCALE AND PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

SELF-PERCEPTION MEASURE	8 AGE GROUPS				4 AGE GROUPS		
	F-ratio	P	r_{rho}	t	F-ratio	P	Scheffé
Tennessee Self Concept Scale							
Total Positive	3.4080	0.0026	.83	3.652	4.5426	.0049	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Identity	3.1630	.0046	.83	3.652	4.2304	.0073	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Subscales							
Self-satisfaction	2.4646	.0224	.79	3.156	2.8047	.0434	-
Behavior	2.2449	.0231	.67	2.211	3.5898	.0162	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Moral Ethical	2.240	.0382	.88	4.538	4.2446	.0071	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Social	2.5944	.0167	.83	3.652	3.9098	.0180	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Family	2.4400	.0024	.85	3.952	3.7303	.0136	$G1_a$ - $G4_a$
Physical	2.5748	.0174	.36	0.945	1.9666	.1236	-
Personal	1.6000	.1441	.67	2.211	2.0550	.1107	-
Purpose in Life	1.8229	.9084	-.07	-0.172			
Personal Report of Communication Apprehension	1.9496	.0694	-.21	-0.526			
	n=101 df=7				n=101 df=3		

significance $p < .05$

variance and Scheffé results for specific tests and subtests are shown in Appendix A.

The size of each of the eight age groups varied widely, with group 2 having the largest number of subjects (n=28) and group 8 containing the smallest number (n=4). Because there was no interaction effect between groups in the one-way classification scheme of the analysis of variance, and the test data collected was ordinal in nature, this method of statistical analysis was appropriate for this study. The assumptions regarding the sample underlying the analysis of variance were met, and as this statistical test has power efficiency, the decision was made to use this method to test the relevant hypotheses.

Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation was computed to further examine the relationship between age groups and test items on the three test instruments and are shown in Table 5. Mean scores for each age group were ranked from highest (8) to lowest (1) on this personality measure. Age groups were also expressed as ranks. The obtained r_{rho} was then tested using t-tests to determine if they were statistically significant at the .05 level (t=0.643; df=6). Pearson product moment correlations were computed to test the hypotheses examining the relationships between the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Purpose in Life scale and the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension.

The literature review in Chapter 2 suggested that differences

might also be found among groups having a wider age-range than the eight age groups originally used for sample classification in this study (Erikson, 1963; Gould, 1975; Levinson, 1977; Havighurst, 1973; Peck, 1968). Therefore, for purposes of further statistical analysis of the scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the eight age groups were combined into four broader age groups as follows:

Group 1_a (group 1 & 2) 15-24 years (mid-point = 19.5; n = 39);

Group 2_a (group 3 & 4) 25-34 years (mid-point = 29.5; n = 37);

Group 3_a (group 5 & 6) 35-44 years (mid-point = 39.5; n = 16);

Group 4_a (group 7 & 8) 45-54 years (mid-point = 49.5; n = 9).

Discussion of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1.1

The first major hypothesis stated there is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the total positive scores representing self-concept as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The results of the Analysis of Variance presented in Table 5, revealed a statistically significant F-ratio ($F[7/101] = 3.4080$; $p = 0.0026$) and the first major null hypothesis was rejected. The Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means (Appendix A) indicated that the differences between pairs of groups were too small for statistical significance (Meyers, 1976). Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation (Table 5) was found to be significant ($t = 0.83$), indicating significant differences among age groups on levels of self-esteem.

Further analysis of the total positive score in which the 8 age groups were combined into 4 age groups, as previously noted, was carried out. The Analysis of Variance, reported in Table 5, revealed a statistically significant F-ratio (F]3/101] = 4.5426; p = 0.0049) and the first major null hypothesis was again rejected. A Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means indicated that group 1_a (15-24 years) and group 4_a (45-54 years) differed significantly from each other on total positive mean scores (p = 0.0082).

Hypothesis 1.2

Hypothesis 1.2 stated that there is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the specific identity subscale scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Application of analysis of variance indicated a statistically significant F-ratio (F[7/101] = 3.1630; p = 0.0046) and therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The significant F-ratio obtained was analyzed using the Scheffé method and the results indicated the differences between groups did not reach significance. Spearman's coefficient of rank results also indicated that the null hypothesis was rejected.

The 8 age groups were subsequently combined into 4 age groups for further analysis of the identity subscale. The results of the analysis of variance also indicated a statistically significant F-ratio (F[3/101] = 4.2304; p = 0.0073) and the null hypothesis was again rejected. The Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means shows significant differences were found between group 1_a, 15-24 years, and group 4_a,

45-54 years, (p = 0.0152).

Hypothesis 1.3

Hypothesis 1.3 proposed there is no statistically significant difference among the 8 age groups on seven subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The results of the analysis of variance revealed the following six significant F-ratios: self-satisfaction (F[7/101] = 2.4646; p = 0.0224); behavior (F[7/101] = 2.4496; p = 0.0231); moral-ethical (F[7/101] = 2.2240; p = 0.0382); social (F[7/101] = 2.5944; p = 0.0167); family (F[7/101] = 3.4400; p = 0.0024); physical (F[7/101] = 2.5748; p = 0.0174). The F-ratio obtained for the personal subscale was not significant (F[7/101] = 1.600; p - 0.1441). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected for six of the subscales and accepted for the personal subscale. When the significant F-ratios obtained were analyzed using the Scheffé method, the results indicated the differences between the 8 age groups were too small to be significant. Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation yielded significant differences between age groups on six of the seven Tennessee Self Concept subscores which were self-satisfaction, physical, moral-ethical, personal, social and family. No significant difference was found for the behavior subscale (t = 0.67) although it did approach significance.

Further analysis combining 8 age groups into 4 age groups was carried out. Results of analysis of variance revealed statistically significant F-ratios on the following five subscales: self-satisfaction

(F[3/101] = 2.8047; p = 0.0434); behavior (F[3/101] = 3.5898; p = 0.0162); moral-ethical (F[3/101] = 4.2446; p = 0.0071); social (F[3/101] = 3.9098; p = 0.0108); family (F[3/101] = 3.7303; p = 0.0136). The physical and personal subscales F-ratios were not significant (F[3/101] = 1.966; p = 0.1236); (F[3/101] = 2.0550; p = 0.1107). The significant F-ratios obtained were analyzed using the Scheffé method and statistically significant differences were found between group 1_a (15-24 years) and group 4_a (45-54 years) on four subscales: moral-ethical, behavior, social and family. It should also be noted that when the Scheffé test was applied to the significant F-ratio obtained for a fifth subscale, self-satisfaction, the results for significant differences between group 1_a and group 4_a approached significance (p = 0.0640).

Hypothesis 1.4

Hypothesis 1.4 stated there is no statistically significant difference between males and females on the total positive score of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. The sample was divided into two groups, male and female, with an age range of 15-54 years. Application of analysis of variance, as shown in Table 6, indicated the null hypothesis was accepted (F[1/101] = 0.0813; p - 0.7761).

Hypothesis 2.1

The first hypothesis regarding the Purpose in Life scale stated there is no statistically significant difference among the 8 age groups on mean scores. Application of analysis of variance indicated

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES ON THE TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE, PURPOSE IN LIFE SCALE AND THE PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

SELF-PERCEPTION MEASURE	MALES		FEMALES		F-ratio	P
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
Total Positive Score	360.13	34.99	362.73	32.78	.0813	.7761
Identity	127.84	12.52	128.93	9.35		
Purpose in Life	16.88	6.51	18.57	5.51	3.0305	.0843
Personal Report of Communication Apprehension	41.71	5.16	44.32	5.65	2.9593	.1539
	n = 44		n = 57		n = 101 df = 1	

significance $p < .05$

the null hypothesis was accepted (F[7/101] = 1.8229; p = 0.9084). Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation was not significant (t = 0.07) and again, hypothesis 2.1 was confirmed.

Hypothesis 2.2

Hypothesis 2.2 proposed there is no statistically significant difference between males and females on the mean Purpose in Life scores. The results of the analysis of variance confirmed the null hypothesis (F[1/101] = 3.0305; p - 0.0843). However, it should be noted that results did approach significance.

Hypothesis 3.1

Results of analysis showed there is no statistically significant difference among the eight age groups on the mean Personal Report of Communication Apprehension scores. Application of analysis of variance, Table 6, indicated the null hypothesis was accepted (F[1/101] = 1.9496; p = 0.0694). Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation failed to determine significant differences (t = -0.214) and the null hypothesis was again confirmed. However, it should be noted that the results did approach significance.

Hypothesis 3.2

Hypothesis 3.2 proposed that there is no statistically significant differences between males and females on the mean Personal Report of Communication Apprehension scales. The data confirmed the null hypothesis (F[1/101] = 2.0593; p = 0.1539).

Hypothesis 2.3

Hypothesis 2.3 stated there is no statistically significant relationship between the Purpose in Life scores and the Tennessee Self Concept scores. Statistical significance implied a probability level of +0.05 or less. Table 7 reveals that the correlation of the Purpose in Life Scale to the total positive score was positive indicating that the higher the subject's level of self-esteem, the greater the degree to which a purpose and meaning in life was found ($r = +0.285$; $p = 0.002$). Other significant relationships among the Purpose in Life Scale and the subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale included those between identity ($r = +0.287$; $p = 0.002$); between self-satisfaction ($r = +0.217$; $p = 0.013$); between behavior ($r = +0.251$; $p = 0.006$); between moral-ethical ($r = +0.287$; $p = 0.002$); between personal self ($r = +0.247$; $p = 0.007$); between family self ($r = +0.225$; $p = 0.014$) and between social self ($r = +0.247$; $p = 0.007$). Thus the null hypothesis of no relationship between the Purpose in Life scores and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale scores was rejected for eight subscales and accepted for one, physical self.

Hypothesis 3.3

The last null hypothesis proposed there is no relationship between the Personal Report of Communication Anxiety scores and the total positive and identity scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Inspection of Table 7 indicated there was no significant difference between these variables and the null hypothesis is accepted. This

TABLE 7

PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT

Intercorrelation Coefficients Among the TSCS Total Score, TSCS Subscales, PIL and CA Scores

TSCS	Identity	Self-Satis.	Behavior	Self Total	Physical	Moral	Personal	Family	Social	Total Conflict	PIL	CA
1. Identity	1.000	0.565	0.649	0.823	0.632	0.622	0.651	0.751	0.738	-0.163	0.287	-0.006
2. Self-Satisfaction	0.565	1.000	0.684	0.890	0.734	0.733	0.792	0.742	0.680	-0.129	0.217*	0.036
3. Behavior	0.649	0.684	1.000	0.890	0.712	0.733	0.766	0.675	0.792	-0.201	0.251*	0.061
4. Total P. Score TSCS	0.823	0.890	0.890	1.000	0.801	0.805	0.854	0.831	0.841	-0.186	0.285*	0.037
5. Physical Self	0.632	0.734	0.712	0.801	1.000	0.512	0.616	0.562	0.613	-0.215	0.172	-0.006
6. Moral Self	0.622	0.733	0.733	0.805	0.512	1.000	0.640	0.611	0.585	-0.060	0.289*	0.027
7. Personal Self	0.651	0.792	0.766	0.854	0.616	0.640	1.000	0.630	0.648	-0.223	0.247*	0.082
8. Family Self	0.751	0.742	0.675	0.831	0.562	0.611	0.630	1.000	0.623	-0.122	0.226*	0.004
9. Social Self	0.738	0.680	0.792	0.841	0.613	0.585	0.648	0.623	1.000	-0.145	0.247	0.048
10. Total Conflict	-0.163	-0.129	-0.201	-0.186	00.215	-0.060	-0.223	-0.122	-0.145	1.000	-0.119	-0.017
11. PIL	0.287	0.217	0.251	0.285	0.172	0.289	0.247	0.226	0.247	-0.119	1.000	0.088
12. CA	-0.006	0.036	0.061	0.037	-0.006	0.027	0.082	0.004	0.048	-0.017	0.088	1.000

demonstrated the scales were relatively independent and oral communication anxiety for this sample was not related to self-esteem. Similarly, there is no significant relationship between communication apprehension and the identity subscale.

Summary

The data analyzed and presented in this chapter related to the hypotheses of the present study. Table 8 presents a summary of the previously reported findings of the current study. This summary clearly shows the results obtained by statistical analysis of the three test instruments.

A discussion of results derived from this study follows in Chapter 5. Implications for counselors and recommendations for further research are reported in Chapter 6.

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL ANALYSES FOR THE HYPOTHESES TESTED FOR

8 AGE GROUPS AND 4 COMBINED AGE GROUPS

HYPOTHESES	STATISTICAL TESTS				
	8 Age Groups			4 Combined Age Groups	
	ANOVA	SCHEFFÉ	r_{rho}	ANOVA	SCHEFFÉ
Tennessee Self Concept Scale					
1.1 Total Positive	*	-	*	*	*
1.2 Identity	*	-	*	*	*
1.3 Subscales					
Self-satisfaction	*	-	*	*	*
Behavior	*	-	*	*	*
Moral Ethical	*	-	*	*	*
Social	*	-	*	*	*
Family	*	-	*	*	*
Physical	*	-	-	-	-
Personal	-	-	*	-	-
2.1 Purpose in Life	-	-	-	-	-
3.1 Personal Report of Communication Apprehension	-	-	-	-	-

* significant difference $p < .05$

\- no significant difference

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to describe age-related differences in personality characteristics over the adult life-span. This chapter focuses on the results of the study, the objectives of the research and integration of theoretical viewpoints and practical issues in the area of adult development.

Discussion of Results

The present study found a significant relationship between age and self-esteem and thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was a strong trend toward an increase in self-esteem as age increased, with significant differences identified between the young adult and middle-aged persons. This indicated that the older aged adults displayed more favorable self-perceptions and higher levels of self-esteem than the younger group. Therefore, the older persons liked themselves, viewed themselves as having value and worth and had confidence in themselves. Conversely, the younger persons reported relatively more doubt as to their own worth and had more feelings of anxiety and depression and less faith and confidence in themselves, than the older subjects. Research studies by Czaja (1975), Hanlon, Hofstaetter and O'Connor (1954), Hess and Bradshaw (1970) and Lyell (1973) similarly found a positive relationship

between self-esteem and aging. The negative effects of age on self-concept proposed by Mason (1954), Rose (1965), Sontag (1972) and Ziller (1967) were not supported by this study.

Maslow's (1968) theoretical framework has relevance to this study. He proposed a positive level of self-esteem as the final prerequisite for self-actualization, which manifests itself in the aging person. Increased levels of self-esteem over the aging process were demonstrated in this study. Therefore, it may be concluded that the older persons having the highest level of self-esteem, more closely approached optimal personality development and self-actualization than the younger age groups. Other theorists similarly emphasized that development may be viewed as a continuous process toward the realization of one's potential and states of self-actualization and self-fulfilment (Allport, 1955; Bühler, 1967; Dabrowski, 1972; Erikson, 1950, 1964; Jung, 1933; May, 1953; Rogers, 1955, 1961). These views are consistent with Schechtel's definition of maturity which included feelings of competence, adequacy and self-worth (Goble, 1970). The findings of this study showing older persons with the highest levels of self-esteem and self-worth are consistent with these theoretical viewpoints. The middle-aged persons in this study appeared to have incorporated internal and life-stage changes and evolved toward becoming more mature and integrated persons.

The importance of examining age-related and life-cycle changes in self-concept and identity was noted earlier in this thesis. The

literature review indicated that no consensus existed between researchers as to an increase or decrease in the achievement of a sense of identity over age (Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga, 1975; Neugarten, 1968; Pierce & Chiriboga, 1979). From this literature review, the second hypothesis that there is no difference between age groups on level of identity was derived. This study found a significant difference among age groups on identity achievement and thus rejected the null hypothesis of no relationship between age and identity. Identity level consistently increased over age, with differences found between the youngest and oldest adult groups. The middle-aged persons indicated relatively positive self-perceptions in the manner in which they described their basic identity and their own view of themselves. In contrast, the youngest adults showed a less positive view of their own identity. These results coincided with studies previously executed by Hess and Bradshaw (1970), Maddox (1968) and also with Marcia's (1964) findings that a sense of ego-identity continued to increase from adolescence over age.

The importance of identity in forming a coherent sense of self and continuity underlines the function of identity in surviving crises, conflicts, transitions and life changes (Wheeler, 1974). Erikson (1950, 1964) emphasized the importance of successful crisis resolution and progression through stages, for the development of an integrated and healthy identity. He termed this positive level of identity achievement as ego-identity, which he associated with positive

levels of self-esteem. The results of this study demonstrated that the oldest individuals with the highest level of self-esteem also had a greater sense of ego-identity than the younger age group. From Erikson's theoretical viewpoint the older subjects had attained a more successful identity crisis resolution, relative to the young adult group, as reflected by increased levels of identity. Havighurst (1960, 1973) viewed identity formation as the result of socialization and the internalization of social roles. This study showing relatively high levels of self-identity in the oldest subjects, compared to the youngest, supports Havighurst's premise.

Fitts (1971) stated that personal growth or personality development preceded and facilitated positive change in self-identity. Fromm (1947) portrayed the mature person as having a clearly defined ego and sense of personal identity. The greater levels of identity found in the oldest aged subjects denoted personality growth and development, in comparison to the lower identity levels found in young adulthood. The results of this study agreed with research by Nawas (1971) which showed an increased sense of self-identity over age. The negative influence of age on identity proposed by Rose and Neugarten (1964) and the reduction of ego-energy over age found by Gutman (1964) and Lubin (1964) have not been confirmed by the current study.

Significant differences among groups were found on six personality dimensions including: self-satisfaction, behavior, moral-ethical,

social, family and physical selves. Differences on levels of self-satisfaction as a function of age, were found in this study with the older aged group displaying a higher degree of self-satisfaction than the younger group. Self-satisfaction reflected the adults' level of self-acceptance and the way they felt about the selves perceived. It should be noted that individuals may have very positive self-perceptions, but because of high standards and expectations, rank relatively low in self-satisfaction. Conversely, an individual might have less positive self-perceptions and yet have lower expectations, yielding higher levels of self-satisfaction. From the findings of this study we may conclude that, in young adulthood, aspirations exceeded achievement, as shown by the young adults' relatively low degree of self-satisfaction. Differences between "actual" and "ideal" self-perceptions appeared to decrease for the oldest persons as indicated by more favorable responses reported by this group. Similarly to findings, earlier cited research concluded that there was an increased congruence between expectations and actual behavior over age and also an increase in self-esteem, self-satisfaction and life-satisfaction as the subject aged (Czaja, 1975; Gordon & Uniacke, 1971; Lyell, 1973; Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin, 1961).

The failure to identify differences between pairs of age groups on physical self failed to support the large body of research that suggested that society's current youth orientation, equating physical attractiveness, well-being and self-worth to youth, leads to less

positive physical self-perceptions and reduced levels of self-esteem over age (Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chirobaga, 1975; Sontag, 1972). This has not proved to be the case in this study and surprisingly the oldest age group, not, as expected, the youngest had the most positive self-perceptions of physical appearance, health and sexuality. Havighurst's (1963, 1978) adjustment model proposed that in the stage of late maturity individuals become reconciled to decreasing physical strength, attractiveness and health. This may account for the findings of this study. However, it may have been that older persons, with a more positive view of their physical selves and higher levels of self-esteem might have responded in a realistic and self-accepting manner. The younger adults displayed less self-satisfaction, with lower scores being the result of a wider discrepancy between "actual" and "ideal" physical selves.

Results for the family and social selves agreed with the trends found for the self-satisfaction scale. Significant differences were found between the young adult and middle-aged persons, with consistent increases in the importance over age placed on family and social roles. The older aged group emphasized the increased importance of family membership and social interactions with others, while the young adult group responded in a less positive manner. These results parallel research findings by Bardwick (1970), Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chiriboga (1975), Roscow (1973) and Schlossberg & Entine (1977), stressing the increased importance of family and social-roles from

the stages of youth through adulthood. This study failed to find a reduction in the importance of social and family roles for the older adult aged groups proposed by Cumming and Henry's (1961) disengagement theory. Rather, the findings suggest that members of the oldest aged group ranked their social and family self-perceptions highest across groups. Neugarten and Tobin (1968) found that respondents who engaged in a greater number of activities also reported higher degrees of self-satisfaction. This may also be the case for the individuals in this sample; however, the data obtained did not include the measurement of their activities.

One major exception to the earlier noted trends toward an increase in positive self-perceptions over age, was the score elevations and valleys consistently shown for adults aged 30 to 34 years (Table 5). The level of identity achieved by group four ($\bar{X}$ = 121.76) showed a substantial increase over group three ($\bar{X}$ = 122.73) and subsequently declined in group five ($\bar{X}$ = 124.00). The age group 30 to 34 years generally is within the age range postulated by developmental task theorists as the period when parenting, social, occupational and family concerns are at their peak (Gould, 1973; Havighurst, 1973; Levinson, 1977). This age falls within the general period during which individuals establish themselves in careers, occupations or academic specialties and through which a sense of identity and self-satisfaction is achieved (Bischof, 1976). If women in this age group are not in the labor force, they most often define their identity in

terms of their sexual partners and children (Whitbourne & Weinstock, 1979). The relatively high level of identity and self-esteem indicated by this age group suggests this may indeed be the case for these subjects. Furthermore, according to the Eriksonian stage theory and the proposed developmental crisis of intimacy versus isolation, the positive response levels on self-identity and self-esteem measures indicated that a successful resolution of their identity crisis had been achieved by this group. Conversely, the decline in positive self-perceptions for group five over group four indicated that progression to the next age group may have resulted in a life-crisis. The age range 35 to 39 for parents generally coincides with the time when their children may be starting school (Cook, 1976). If a woman has achieved her identity through her expressive role, as her children become more independent this may result in a loss of her self-identity. During this period of adjustment, some women return to the labor force or resume their education (Cook, 1976). The re-entry into the job market and educational institutions may also result in lowered levels of self-esteem and some lessening of a sense of coherent identity until the first uncertain feelings are resolved. Changes in self-identity and the accompanying feelings of confusion and self-doubt were reflected by the following comments made by respondents during the course of this survey:

There must be something meaningful and worthwhile in what I

> do...I changed from only wanting to be a wife and mother to wanting to be fulfiled as a person.
>
> Here I am...youthful and successful and already I feel saddled with the responsibility of making my family and others happy.

Divorce in mid-life occurs in response to changes and stresses and is painful, followed most often by feelings of self-doubt, negative self-perceptions and lowered levels of self-esteem. The largest number of divorced persons in the sample were in the 35 to 39 age range. It appears that the decrease in positive self-perceptions, over the preceding age group, was affected by their marital status.

When the data was combined into four broad age groups, significant differences in self-perceptions were found between the young adult group, 15 to 24 years, and the middle-aged group, 45 to 54 years. Differences between pairs of group means were not found in the data analysis for the more restricted eight age categories. The differences identified may be the result of the small sample size for the two oldest aged groups which were comprised of four and five subjects (Winer, 1962). Furthermore, the five year age range of the original eight groups might have been too narrow to show differences between groups, in contrast with the ten year range for the four age group category analysis. If adult development is viewed as a continuous process, the small steps between the eight age groups might not have allowed for significant quantitative differences to be

identified. Future research studies should take this into account when establishing age categories.

Interestingly, the four combined age groups used for the secondary data analysis in this study, approximate the chronological ages of the major developmental stage and task models (Bühler, 1972; Brim, 1976; Erikson, 1954, 1964; Gould, 1975; Havighurst, 1960, 1973; Levinson, 1977, 1978; Peck, 1968; Valliant, 1977). These theoretical concepts of adult development imply age-related personality change as resulting from movement through stages and the successful completion of developmental tasks. The results of this study demonstrated changes in self-perceptions and indicated personality growth over life-stages. Progression through stages and completion of developmental tasks has led to increased levels of self-esteem and identity.

A positive relationship was found between purpose in life and eight of the self-concept scales and thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. The higher the level of self-esteem, the greater the degree to which the adults found a purpose and meaning in life. Bühler (1972) and Maslow (1970) emphasized the need to be committed to personal goals and meaning in life in order to achieve a positive level of self-esteem which, in their view, was a prerequisite to states of self-realization. The findings in this study of a positive relationship between self-esteem and purpose in life underlined their premise. Conversely, the results of this study concurred with Fromm-Reichmann's (1955) view of a positive relationship between a

lack of self-realization and feelings of stagnation and meaninglessness indicated by lower levels of self-esteem.

The significant positive relationship between the achievement of purpose in life and self-identity was determined by the results of this study. These findings parallel the view that, as the ego becomes organized, a positive sense of identity is established and a sense that living has a meaning, a direction and a central purpose is achieved (Cole, 1970). In contrast, to have no sense of meaning in life gives rise to feelings of helplessness and lack of self-esteem. May (1960) stated that, as persons established their own identity and experienced positive self-perceptions, only then was one able to fulfill one's potential. The results of this study also showed that positive self-perceptions, including identity, self-satisfaction, moral-ethical, family, social and personal selves, are related to the degree to which one found meaning and purpose in life.

The results of this study demonstrated that the self-perceptions of adults were not consistent across age groups and there were positive changes in self-esteem and identity over the aging process. The findings are in agreement with previously cited research studies indicating personality differences among adult aged groups and changes over the life-cycle (Lowenthal & Weiss, 1976; Nawas, 1971; Riegel, 1976; Schaie & Parham, 1976). This view of developmental change emphasizes that adult personality development is a process that continues over the entire life-span (Erikson, 1954, 1964; Greenleigh, 1974;

Schaie & Gribbon, 1975). Neugarten (1973) defined development as a process in which the individual is changed or transformed, regardless of the direction of change. Thus, from the results of this study, we conclude that development occurred in a positive direction and that self-concept is not static, but open to change and development. Research stressing personality continuity and stability over the life-span proposed by Block and Hann (1971), Bryne (1966), Chown (1968), Kuhlen (1963), Mass and Kuypers (1974) and Maddox (1968) has not been supported by this investigation.

Confirmed Hypotheses

No significant differences were found between sexes on self-concept measures. These results were surprising in that they indicated that levels of self-esteem and identity were not strongly affected by sex differences. These findings are contrary to the large body of research evidence previously cited, which proposed that the aging process affects men and women differently (Gutman, 1974; Lyell, 1973; Monge, 1975; Neugarten & Rosen, 1964). These results are also contrary to studies by Bardwick (1972), Fasteau (1974), and Ullman (1976) whose research emphasized greater levels of self-esteem and self-identity for males, relative to females, over the life-cycle.

The present investigation collected data from the adults that did result in the rejection of the two null hypotheses concerning age and sex differences and purpose in life. The degree to which adults found

a meaning or purpose in life did not differ across ages or between sexes. In other words, there was a basic continuity in the degree of purpose in life across age groups and between sexes. In terms of existential despair, none of the age or sex groups were alienated, or felt their lives were meaningless.

Because of the strong effect of speech proficiency on adult life-cycle choices, communication apprehension was chosen as an anxiety measure for this study. The results indicated there was no significant difference among age and sex groups and the null hypothesis of no difference was accepted. However, it should be noted that the results did approach significance ($p = .0694$), indicating a strong possibility that there may be some relationship between age and level of oral anxiety. It is surprising not to have found a significant relationship between self-esteem and communication anxiety, since it was anticipated from the literature review, that there would be a relationship. Persons with low self-esteem and high communication anxiety frequently were described in research findings as possessing similar personality characteristics (Jourard, 1971). However, other researchers found no relationship between speech skills and self-concept (Brooks & Platz, 1968; Miyamoto, Crowell and Kratcher, 1956) and the results of this study agreed with their findings.

No significant relationship was found between oral communication anxiety, self-esteem and self-identity demonstrating that the two scales were relatively independent and speech anxiety for this sample

was not related to self-esteem. Similarly to the findings of no relationship between age and speech anxiety, these findings were contrary to Jourard's (1971) research which found that high levels of communication apprehension and high levels of self-concept were positively related. However, results of other studies (Brooks & Platz, 1968) concur with the findings of the present study which found that speech anxiety was not related to the degree of self-esteem or self-identity achieved.

The failure to find a relationship between age and speech anxiety raises several relevant points. The subjects in this study were voluntarily recruited. Research by Jourard (1971) found persons with high levels of self-esteem engaged in higher frequencies of self-disclosing behaviors. Individuals who refused to take part in this study by completing the questionnaires, which were self-disclosing in nature, may have been persons who were reluctant to interact verbally. The researcher noted that some of the people who did refuse to participate commented that they did not want "anyone prying into my life." Thus, the voluntary nature of the sample selection may account for the unexpected results of this study. In addition, the research studies previously cited were based on student populations who conceivably responded differently than adults of varying age groups. Furthermore, the results may have reflected the respondent's adjustment to their speech anxiety rather than their actual degree of oral communication apprehension. This discrepancy between expectations and

real behaviors was noted earlier in this chapter. Securing objective responses is one of the major difficulties commonly noted in self-report surveys.

Summary

The results of the study were discussed in this chapter. Middle-aged persons showed more positive degrees of self-esteem and self-identity, relative to the young adults. These results suggest a process taking place over age with progression toward self-actualization, self-fulfillment and higher levels of personality development.

Chapter 6 discusses the implications of this study for counselors and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The major adult developmental issues on which this thesis focused were changes in personality characteristics including: self-concept, self-identity and self-esteem over the adult life-span. Frankl's concept of the degree of purpose found in life as a measure of identity resolution was also examined across adult aged groups. A second level of investigation, the measurement of oral communication anxiety was explored to determine if there was a relationship between speech anxiety and self-esteem.

One-hundred and one subjects ranging in age from fifteen to fifty-five years were randomly selected for this study. The subjects were surveyed using three questionnaires: The Tennessee Self Concept Scale, The Purpose in Life Test and The Personal Report of Communication.

This study found that the self-perceptions of adults were not consistent across ages. Significant differences on levels of self-esteem and self-identity among age groups were found, with a tendency for increase as a function of age. Six other self-concept scales also showed differences among age groups. When the data were combined into broader age categories for further analysis, significant differences were found between the young adult and the middle-aged respondents on six scales including self-esteem and self-identity. No significant

differences were found between sexes on any of the self-concept scales. Purpose in life and oral speech anxiety scores did not differ over age. Findings in this study revealed that the greater the level of self-esteem, the greater the degree to which purpose and meaning in life was found. Oral communication anxiety and self-esteem were found to be relatively independent in this study. The general trend was toward positive self-perceptions over age.

Adulthood may be viewed from a variety of perspectives as seen by the diversity of theories and research studies cited in Chapter 2 of this study. Special challenges have emerged for counselors due to the increasing recognition of adult needs (Schlossberg, Troll & Leibowitz, 1978). In keeping with this trend, this study will be of interest to counselors working with adults and to persons involved with providing programs and resources for adults. This chapter presents implications for counselors arising from this study and suggestions for future research.

Limitations

Problems Related to Sample

The design of this study involved enlisting the cooperation of a wide range of adults. Obtaining representative and random samples is one of the major difficulties in life-span research. Random sampling techniques were systematically used in this study. However, as noted earlier, the sample was not representative of the target

population. Most striking was the high level of education attained relative to the general population (Census Canada, 1976). Marital status included a higher percentage of married and single persons than in the general population. Perhaps most importantly, was the relatively large proportion of the youngest age groups in the sample relative to the older age groups. The sample included only population members who were willing to participate in this study. The non-participants might have provided alternate insights, as it is highly likely that persons who responded to the survey were dissimilar from those the researcher was unable to contact or who declined to participate. Thus, the generalizations made from the results of this study were approached with caution.

The cross-sectional design of the study compared age groups and focused on age differences on three personality measures. Comparisons were made for age groups comprised of different subjects. One major disadvantage of this design is that it confounds age and cohort (Schaie, 1967). Thus, it becomes impossible to determine if group differences are a function of age or if the specific experiences of each group of subjects is the result of their cohort membership. For instance, persons who are presently middle-aged have experienced the greatest social and life-style changes of any generation. Therefore, their lives are most unlike that of any other cohorts while, in contrast, older people's lives have not differed as much from that of their parents. The effect of generational change on self-concept is

an unknown variable in cross-sectional research.

Schaie (1965, 1970) proposed the General Developmental Model which utilized components of the cross-sectional and longitudinal designs to treat the three sources of developmental variation - age, cohort and time measurement. However, this research design needed a longer time sequence for data collection than was available and was beyond the scope of this study.

Problems Related to Questionnaires

Measures of personality that were used in this study differed from many used in studies cited earlier. The differences in instrumentation resulted in differences in characteristics measured and led to an inability to make valid comparisons across many of the research studies.

The test instruments employed were amenable to the study of adult self-perceptions and they measured concepts relevant to counseling. Collecting data of this nature on a one-to-one basis was extremely time-consuming. Contacting participants generally took several call-backs and the time needed to de-brief the respondents was long because of the nature of the test battery and the number of personal issues the tests raised. Testing in groups would be appropriate for further research, if adult groups willing to participate could be found.

Suggestions for Further Research

Researchers have shown that all age groups agree on the general

appropriateness of adult age and role categories (Neugarten, Moore & Lower, 1965). An alternate method of viewing changes over age is to study persons within the context of life-stages or life-cycle groups. The most conclusive results shown in this study were found in the age categories with the widest age range and which approximated life-stage and age-role categories. This suggests that the life-cycle approach may be a viable research strategy and potentially useful in explaining personality characteristics and change over the life-course.

One of the major limitations of this investigation was the method used to collect the data. The difficulties previously noted in securing a representative sample might be overcome by the use of the life-cycle research perspective. Persons in the same life-cycle stages often participate in similar organizations and, as group members, may be willing to participate in a research study if it is of benefit to the group. Although a sample bias will still exist from this method of sample selection, if a wide enough range of groups from the general population was encouraged to participate, then inferences from these studies could be made with some confidence. If individuals engaged in similar developmental tasks indicate they have similar and specialized counseling needs, the group approach would have benefits for the group members as well as adult developmental researchers.

An alternate research proposal derived from the data collection experiences of the current study is the use of fewer subjects, surveyed

in greater depth. Personality tests have been shown to be worthwhile and efficient methods of research; however, at times, they obscure the uniqueness of the individual. A case study approach combined with objective methods such as were used in this investigation would allow a more complete profile of subjects across various age groups. This method of combining objective and subjective test methods appears to be practical in that many of the respondents in the study expressed their willingness to participate in research on a longer term basis and the potential for longitudinal research appears promising. The relatively high participation rate for field survey research of this nature reflects a strong interest in the life-course perspective in the community and the potential for further research seems encouraging.

Implications for Counselors

The major findings of this study of personality differences and growth characteristics across adult aged groups has important implications for counselors. The theme which emerged from this research was that the adult years may be seen as a process, with personality changes occurring over age and a tendency toward optimal personality development. Thus, the first implication arising from this study is the importance of the personal biases and perspectives of counselors toward adulthood. Counselors' views as to stability or change over the life-course have strong consequences, as our assumptions strongly

affect the counseling encounter. The adult issues explored, the interventions used, and the counseling framework established, reflect the counselors own philosophy and view of adult development. Undoubtedly, the counselors' own feelings and anxieties toward the aging process will be communicated within the counseling situation and an awareness of our own attitudes and perspectives as to adult development is critical to effective counseling.

Aging conceptualized as a process involving change over time, is of major concern to counselors as it implies helping clients to adjust to change, to develop and grow. Also implicit in this dynamic view of adulthood derived from the present study, is the need for counselors to assist clients to maintain stability and resist change if that is the client's focus. It should not be assumed that all change is necessarily beneficial. An awareness of the adult developmental perspective enables counselors to focus on the process of change and the pertinent adult issues involved in counseling situations and thereby, develop techniques and interventions most appropriate in aiding clients.

Presently, a large portion of counseling is focused on adults in the form of psychotherapy, marriage and family counseling. Counselors must be aware of the "salient issues of adulthood" (Neugarten, 1968), the transitions and crisis points of the different stages of adult life. The findings of this study of change and transitions, illustrate the need for counselors of adults to have specialized training so

that they can work from a knowledgeable perspective, in contrast to counselors whose academic study is limited to childhood and adolescent development. Reik (in Schlossberg and Entine, 1977) described this as "listening with the third ear." This skill is very important for counselors working with adult aged clients as it provides the necessary framework to understand clients and aid them in their adjustments and decision making processes.

One example of the need to use the "third ear" listening skills in working with adults was illustrated by comments made by two participants in this study. The first example was a middle-aged man who was having difficulty coping with career change because of a forced retirement. He found his problem compounded by other life-stage concerns including: fear of cancer, worry about the death of his parents, feelings of diminished potency in life and difficulty dealing with adolescent children.

The second example of the need for specialized adult counselors was the case of a middle-aged woman who wanted information on how to apply to university. She was afraid that she might be rejected on the grounds that she, and her education, were too old. However, it soon became apparent that the woman's real concern was not applying to university, but rather her feelings of discontent. She expressed feelings of loss as her children were leaving home and her marriage was stale. This woman expressed fear of leaving the previous life-stage she had comfortably occupied and moving on to the next stage. She

was uncertain of what she wanted and she expressed the need to reassess herself as she adjusted to her new situation. Applying to university merely gave her the link she needed for setting up an appointment with a counselor which the researcher encouraged her to do. Adults often need help adapting to change and making transitions and adjustments. Thus, a knowledge of both theory and content of adult life-stages and developmental processes are the necessary background for counselors.

The findings of this study demonstrating change and fluctation in self-identity over age suggest that identity may be an issue whenever a person is confronted with a major transition. Levinson (1976) proposed that identity crises occurred when the men in his research did not achieve what they had set out to do. This gave rise to a loss of identity and resulted in self-confrontation and questions such as: "Who am I?" "What am I doing?" This need for re-assessment through the search for identity has been shown to be equally important to women. The impact of mid-life career change on self-identity raises further counseling questions. Is vocational change preceded by identity change or is there identity change after career change? Counseling is clearly one of the professions that can assist adults as they face the inevitable role increments and declines and the accompanying fluctations in self-identity and self-esteem.

The general implications for counselors working with adults derived from this study have been presented. Specific proposals for

interventions and programs arising from the research are as follows:

1. Training of counselors as specialists in adult developmental areas with a focus on life-stages, transitions and crisis intervention is presently of utmost importance.
2. An emphasis should be placed by counselors on life-planning for the entire life-course encompassing all areas of adult life including education, work and leisure.
3. Mid-life vocational/career counseling should be further developed for adults changing careers and women entering the work force after a period of absence. Career counseling should also be extended for persons who have taken early retirements and wish to change career direction. The emphasis should be on personal need fulfilment through career and job satisfaction.
4. Programs are needed to explore adult issues and concerns in small group settings with an emphasis on examining values, needs and self-reassessment in order to effectively deal with developmental changes and transitions to successive life-stages. Currently, some programs of this nature are available for women; however there is a strong need to include men in these groups.
5. Counselors are needed in business and industry to develop programs and assist employees and management to plan for, and deal with, the predictable changes in life.
6. An emphasis in group and individual counseling should be placed on high-risk persons such as those involved in involuntary career

changes, post-parental periods and mid-life crises so that the adults most vunerable to stress and depression can be readily identified and assisted.

7. A life-course perspective for adolescents and young adults should be developed to prepare them for their own future and to attempt to break down some of the stereotypes of the options currently open to older aged adults. Counselors might assist this understanding by implementing a life-course program as part of family life education in the schools.
8. A focus on exploring self-identity and self-esteem concerns for young adults through schools, community groups, educational institutions and individual counseling is needed. The results of this study showed this to be an area that was problematic for this age group.
9. Further innovative research may provide some realistic assessments of adults' specialized needs. Developing an applied psychology of adulthood represents a challenge and opportunity for helping professions. Funding for research in this area is a necessity and should be promoted by the counseling profession.

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APPENDIX A

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND SCHEFFÉ COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR APPROPRIATE HYPOTHESES.

TABLE 9

Summary of One-Way Anova and Scheffé Tests for 8 Age Groups

On Total Positive Scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Group - Total Positive Score

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	24944	7	3563.6	3.4080	0.0026*
Errors	105628	101	1045.8		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé
Multiple Comparison Means

Age Groups - Total Positive Score

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	0.00161	1.0000
G3 - G1	0.02903	1.0000
G3 - G2	0.07806	0.9992
G4 - G1	0.90962	0.5019
G4 - G2	1.64613	0.1301
G4 - G3	0.89872	0.5103
G5 - G1	0.09017	0.9987
G5 - G2	0.16640	0.9913
G5 - G3	0.03110	1.0000
G5 - G4	0.38794	0.9077
G6 - G1	0.18109	0.9887
G6 - G2	0.26846	0.9649
G6 - G3	0.11044	0.9976
G6 - G4	0.10392	0.9980
G6 - G5	0.03002	1.0000
G7 - G1	0.25097	0.9709
G7 - G2	0.35067	0.9284

*p < .05

TABLE 10

Summary of One-Way ANOVA and Scheffé for 4 Combined Age Groups on Total Positive Scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Group - Total Positive Score

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	14997	7	499.3	4.5426	0.0049*
Errors	115556	101	1100.5		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison Means

Age Groups - Total Positive Score

G1 - CJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	1.9559	0.1247
G3 - G1	0.7795	0.5073
G3 - G2	0.0364	0.9907
G4 - G1	4.1132	0.0082*
G4 - G2	1.3798	0.2526
G4 - G3	1.4119	0.2430

*p < .05

TABLE 11

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for 8 Age Groups on Identity Subscale Scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Groups - Identity Subscale

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	2563	7	366.13	3.1630	0.0046*
Errors	11695	101	115.79		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparisons of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 12

Summary of One-Way ANOVA and Scheffé Tests for 4 Combined Age Groups and the Identity Subscales on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Group - Identity Subscale

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	1537	3	512.3555	4.2304	0.0073*
Errors	12717	101	121.1143		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means

Age Groups - Identity Subscale

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	2.0621	0.1092
G3 - G1	0.8310	0.4795
G3 - G2	0.0365	0.9906
G4 - G1	3.6276	0.0152*
G4 - G2	1.0613	0.3685
G4 - G3	1.1210	0.3437

*p < .05

TABLE 13

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for 8 Age Groups on Seven Subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Groups - Seven Subscales

Age Groups - Self-satisfaction

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	3926	7	566.91	2.4646	0.0224*
Errors	22986	101	227.58		

Age Groups - Moral Ethical

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	918.9	7	131.26	2.2240	0.0382*
Errors	5961.3	101	59.02		

Age Groups - Behavior

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	2483	7	354.78	2.4496	0.0231*
Errors	14628	101	144.83		

Age Groups - Social

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	1231.0	7	175.86	2.5944	0.0167*
Errors	6846.4	101	67.79		

Age Groups - Family

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	1521.4	7	217.35	3.4400	0.0024*
Errors	6381.6	101	63.18		

Age Groups - Physical

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	1190.5	7	170.08	2.5748	0.0174*
Error	6671.4	101	66.05		

Age Groups - Personal

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	739.4	7	105.63	1.6000	0.1441
Error	6669.8	101			

*$p < .05$

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparisons of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 14

Summary of One-Way ANOVA and Scheffé Tests for 4 Combined Age Groups on Seven Subscales of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Age Groups - Seven Subscales

Age Groups - Self-satisfaction

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	1996	3	664.5675	2.8047	0.0434*
Errors	24913	101	237.2667		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	1.0518	0.3725
G3 - G1	0.8225	0.4841
G3 - G2	0.0132	0.9979
G4 - G1	2.4889	0.0640
G4 - G2	0.9040	0.4416
G4 - G3	0.5958	0.6191

Age Groups - Moral Ethical

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	744	3	248.0418	4.2446	0.0071*
Errors	6135	101	58.4375		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	2.3176	0.0794
G3 - G1	0.9426	0.4226
G3 - G2	0.0392	0.9895
G4 - G1	3.4110	0.0200*
G4 - G2	0.8496	0.4696
G4 - G3	0.9340	0.4268

Age Groups - Behavior

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	1591	3	530.5112	3.5898	0.0162*
Errors	15517	101	147.7809		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	1.4811	0.2235
G3 - G1	0.1892	0.9035
G3 - G2	0.2435	0.8653
G4 - G1	3.2808	0.0236*
G4 - G2	1.1409	0.3353
G4 - G3	1.7059	0.1693

Age Groups - Social

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	794	3	264.6917	3.9098	0.0.08
Errors	7108	101	67.7999		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé Multiple Comparison of Means

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	1.8481	0.1425
G3 - G1	0.3559	0.7849
G3 - G2	0.1958	0.8991
G4 - G1	3.2183	0.0255*
G4 - G2	0.9337	0.4270
G4 - G3	1.3895	0.2497

Age Groups - Family

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	777	3	259.3239	3.7303	0.0136*
Errors	7299	101	69.5178		

Probability Matrix for Scheffé
Multiple Comparison of Means

G1 - GJ	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
G2 - G1	1.0672	0.3660
G3 - G1	0.3372	0.7985
G3 - G2	0.0446	0.9874
G4 - G1	3.9671	0.0099*
G4 - G2	1.8388	0.1441
G4 - G3	1.8642	0.1397

Age Groups - Physical**

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	375.1	3	139.37	1.9660	0.1236
Error	7443.4	101			

Age Groups - Personal**

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	349.9	3	136.94	2.0550	0.1107
Error	6998.4	101			

*p < .05

**Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparisons of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 15

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for Sex Groups (Male & Female) on Total Positive Scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

Sex Groups (Male & Female) - Total Positive Score

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	2962	1	129.12	0.0813	0.7761
Errors	13674	101	1588.01		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparisons of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 16

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for 8 Age Groups on Purpose in Life Scores

Age Groups - Purpose in Life Score

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	383.8	7	54.830	1.8229	0.9084
Error	3037.8	101	30.077		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparisons of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 17

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for Males & Females on the Purpose in Life Scale

Sex Groups (Male & Female) - Purpose in Life Scale

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Group	92.8	1	92.801	3.0305	0.0843
Error	3521.6	101	30.622		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparison of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 18

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for 8 Age Groups on the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension Scores

Age Groups - Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	1866	7	266.69	1.9496	0.0694
Error	13816	101	136.79		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparison of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

TABLE 19

Summary of One-Way ANOVA for Sex Groups (Male & Female on Purpose in Life Scale

Sex Groups (Male & Female) - Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P
Groups	290	1	290.16	2.0593	0.1539
Means	16203	115	140.90		

*p < .05

Probability matrix for Scheffé multiple comparison of means omitted as there are no significant differences.

APPENDIX B

Letters and Questionnaires

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

September 24, 1979.

Dear Occupant:

We are currently conducting a survey of adults in the Edmonton community. This survey is designed to gather information on characteristics and changes in adulthood. The purpose of this study is to enable those working with adults to more clearly understand the concerns of different age groups across the life cycle.

Your address was randomly selected from a list of residents in the Edmonton area. We would sincerely appreciate you giving us 30 minutes of your time to complete a questionnaire. Your answers on this questionnaire are crucial to our research. Your name is not used on any of the questionnaires and all information is completely confidential.

Over the next two weeks you will be contacted in your home and if you have any questions about this research project please feel free to ask them at that time.

Your cooperation and help in completing this study will be sincerely appreciated. If you wish a copy of the completed study it will be made available to you. By your participation you will be helping us to help others. If you have any questions about this research project before you are contacted please call 459-7512 or 458-2531, evenings. Thank you.

Maxine Crooks

6-102 EDUCATION NORTH, EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA • T6G 2G5 • TELEPHONE (403) 432-5245

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
AUSTIN, TEXAS 78712

Department of Speech Communication

Telephone 471-5251
Area Code 512

March 20, 1978

Maxine Crooks
Student Counseling Services
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

Dear Ms. Crooks:

I apologize for the latency in my response to your telegram concerning the article which appeared in the Journal of Counseling Psychology in 1975. I was attending a conference in Boston until yesterday.

I have included in this letter a copy of the most recent version of the instrument we used to assess communication apprehension. I hope this is the instrument you were addressing in your telegram. Let me also suggest two relevant references. The first is concerned with the relationship between the apprehension and various measures of self-concept (McCroskey, J.C., Daly, J.A., Richmond, V.P. & Falcione, R.L. Studies of the relationship between communication apprehension and self-esteem. Human Communication Research, 1977, 3, 269-277). The second is a summary, state-of-the-art type review of the apprehension literature (McCroskey, J.C., Oral communication apprehension: A summary of recent research. Human Communication Research 1977, 4, 78-96). If you discover that the journal in which both articles appeared is unavailable I will be glad to send you copies.

I hope my response is of use to you. If I can be of any further assistance please do not hesitate to get in touch.

Cordially,

John A. Daly, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor

JAD:ms

DIRECTIONS: Fill in your name and other information on the separate answer sheet.

The statements in this inventory are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please answer them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Read each item carefully; then select one of the five responses below and fill in the answer space on the separate answer sheet.

Don't skip any items. Answer each one. Use a soft lead pencil. Pens won't work. If you change an answer, you must erase the old answer completely and enter the new one.

RESPONSES	Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
	C	M		M	C
	F	F	PF-PT	T	T
	1	2	3	4	5

TENNESSEE SELF CONCEPT SCALE

1. I have a healthy body..... 1
2. I am an attractive person..... 2
3. I consider myself a sloppy person..... 3
4. I am a decent sort of person..... 4
5. I am an honest person..... 5
6. I am a bad person..... 6
7. I am a cheerful person..... 7
8. I am a calm and easy going person..... 8
9. I am a nobody..... 9
10. I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble. 10
11. I am a member of a happy family..... 11
12. My friends have no confidence in me..... 12
13. I am a friendly person..... 13
14. I am popular with men..... 14
15. I am not interested in what other people do..... 15
16. I do not always tell the truth..... 16
17. I get angry sometimes..... 17
18. I like to look nice and neat all the time..... 18
19. I am full of aches and pains..... 19
20. I am a sick person..... 20
21. I am a religious person..... 21
22. I am a moral failure..... 22
23. I am a morally weak person..... 23
24. I have a lot of self-control..... 24
25. I am a hateful person..... 25

26. I am losing my mind..... 26
27. I am an important person to my friends and family..... 27
28. I am not loved by my family..... 28
29. I feel that my family doesn't trust me..... 29
30. I am popular with women..... 30
31. I am mad at the whole world..... 31
32. I am hard to be friendly with..... 32
33. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about..... 33
34. Sometimes when I am not feeling well, I am cross..... 34
35. I am neither too fat nor too thin..... 35
36. I like my looks just the way they are..... 36
37. I would like to change some parts of my body..... 37
38. I am satisfied with my moral behavior..... 38
39. I am satisfied with my relationship to God..... 39
40. I ought to go to church more..... 40
41. I am satisfied to be just what I am..... 41
42. I am just as nice as I should be..... 42
43. I despise myself..... 43
44. I am satisfied with my family relationships..... 44
45. I understand my family as well as I should..... 45
46. I should trust my family more..... 46
47. I am as sociable as I want to be..... 47
48. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it..... 48
49. I am no good at all from a social standpoint..... 49
50. I do not like everyone I know..... 50
51. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke..... 51
52. I am neither too tall nor too short..... 52
53. I don't feel as well as I should..... 53
54. I should have more sex appeal..... 54
55. I am as religious as I want to be..... 55
56. I wish I could be more trustworthy..... 56
57. I shouldn't tell so many lies..... 57
58. I am as smart as I want to be..... 58
59. I am not the person I would like to be..... 59
60. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do..... 60
61. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living)..... 61
62. I am too sensitive to things my family say..... 62
63. I should love my family more..... 63
64. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people..... 64
65. I should be more polite to others..... 65
66. I ought to get along better with other people..... 66
67. I gossip a little at times..... 67
68. At times I feel like swearing..... 68
69. I take good care of myself physically..... 69
70. I try to be careful about my appearance..... 70
71. I often act like I am "all thumbs"..... 71
72. I am true to my religion in my everyday life..... 72

73. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong..... 73
74. I sometimes do very bad things..... 74
75. I can always take care of myself in any situation..... 75
76. I take the blame for things without getting mad..... 76
77. I do things without thinking about them first..... 77
78. I try to play fair with my friends and family..... 78
79. I take a real interest in my family..... 79
80. I give in to my parents (Use past tense if parents are not..... 80
living)
81. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view..... 81
82. I get along well with other people..... 82
83. I do not forgive others easily..... 83
84. I would rather win than lose in a game..... 84
85. I feel good most of the time..... 85
86. I do poorly in sports and games..... 86
87. I am a poor sleeper..... 87
88. I do what is right most of the time..... 88
89. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead..... 89
90. I have trouble doing the things that are right..... 90
91. I solve my problems quite easily..... 91
92. I change my mind a lot..... 92
93. I try to run away from my problems..... 93
94. I do my share of work at home..... 94
95. I quarrel with my family..... 95
96. I do not act like my family things I should..... 96
97. I see good points in all the people I meet..... 97
98. I do not feel at ease with other people..... 98
99. I find it hard to talk with strangers..... 99
100. Once in a while I put off until tommorow what I ought to do today..100

THE PURPOSE IN LIFE TEST

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NAME _____ DATE _____

AGE _____ SEX _____ CLASSIFICATION _____

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FORM A
TEST #168

For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling. "Neutral" implies no judgment either way; try to use this rating as little as possible.

1. I am usually

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
completely bored			(neutral)			exuberant, enthusiastic

2. Life to me seems:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
always exciting			(neutral)			completely routine

3. In life I have:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no goals or aims at all			(neutral)			Very clear goals and aims

4. My personal existence is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Utterly meaningless without purpose			(neutral)			very purposeful and meaningful

5. Every day is:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
constantly new and different			(neutral)			exactly the same

6. If I could choose, I would:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
prefer never to have been born			(neutral)			Like nine more lives just like this one

7. After retiring, I would:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
do some of the exciting things I have always wanted to			(neutral)			loaf completely the rest of my life

8. In achieving life goals I have:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
made no progress whatsoever			(neutral)			progressed to complete fulfillment

9. My life is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
empty, filled only with despair			(neutral)			running over with exciting good things

10. If I should die today, I would feel that my life has been:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
very worthwhile			(neutral)			completely worthless

11. In thinking of my life, I;

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
often wonder why I exist			(neutral)			always see a reason for my being here

12. As I view the world in relation to my life, the world:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
completely confuses me			(neutral)			fits meaningfully with my life

13. I am a:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very irresponsible person			(neutral)			very responsible person

14. Concerning man's freedom to make his own choices, I believe man is:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
absolutely free to make all life choices			(neutral)			completely bound by limitations of heredity and environment

15. With regard to death, I am:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
prepared and unafraid			(neutral)			unprepared and frightened

16. With regard to suicide, I have:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
thought of it seriously as a way out			(neutral)			never given it a second thought

17. I regard my ability to find a meaning, purpose, or mission in life as:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
very great			(neutral)			practically none

18. My life is:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
in my hands and I am in control of it			(neutral)			out of my hands and controlled by external factors

19. Facing my daily tasks is:

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
a source of pleasure and satisfaction			(neutral)			a painful and boring experience

20. I have discovered:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no mission or purpose in life			(neutral)			clear-cut goals and a satisfying life purpose

PART B

Make complete sentences of each of the following phrases. Work rapidly, filling in the Blanks with the first thing that pops into your mind.

1. More than anything, I want _____
2. My life is _____
3. I hope I can _____
4. I have achieved _____
5. My highest aspiration _____
6. The most hopeless thing _____
7. The whole purpose of my life _____
8. I get bored _____
9. Death is _____
10. I am accomplishing _____
11. Illness and suffering can be _____
12. To me all life is _____
13. The thought of suicide _____

PART C

Write a paragraph describing in detail your aims, ambitions, goals in life. How much progress are you making in achieving them?

PRCA - College

This instrument is composed of 20 statements concerning feelings about communication with other people.

Indicate the degree to which the statements apply to you by marking whether you (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are undecided, (4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree with each statement. Work quickly, just record your first impression.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance I feel very nervous.					
2. I have no fear of facing an aucience.					
3. I look forward to expressing my opinion at meetings.					
4. I look forward to an opportunity to speak in public.					
5. I find the prospect of speaking mildly pleasant.					
6. When communicating, my posture feels strained and unnatural.					
7. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.					
8. Although I talk fluently with friends I am at a loss for words on the platform.					
9. My hands tremble when I try to handle objects on the platform.					
10. I always avoid speaking in public if possible.					
11. I feel that I am more fluent when talking to people than most other people are.					
12. I am fearful and tense all the while I am speaking before a group of people.					

PRCA - College (cont'd.)

	1	2	3	4	5
13. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I speak before an audience.					
14. Although I am nervous just before getting up, I soon forget my fears and enjoy the experience.					
15. Conversing with people who hold positions of authority causes me to be fearful and tense.					
16. I dislike to use my body and voice expressively.					
17. I feel relaxed and comfortable while speaking.					
18. I feel self-conscious when I am called upon to answer a question or give an opinion in class.					
19. I face the prospect of making a speech with complete confidence.					
20. I would enjoy presenting a speech on a local television show.					